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JOURNAL

OF THE

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

FOUNDED IN 1912

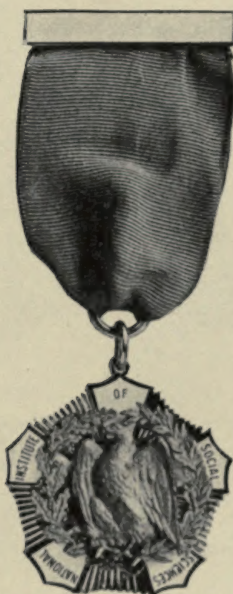
UNDER THE CHARTER OF THE

AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

INCORPORATED BY ACT OF CONGRESS, JANUARY 28, 1899

VOLUME I.

NUMBER I.



PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

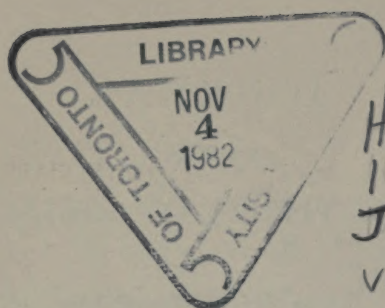
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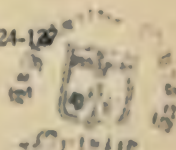
THE ALEXANDER PRESS  
114-116 WEST 27TH STREET  
NEW YORK



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## IN MEMORIAM.

In the death of St. Clair McKelway, a Vice-President of the National Institute of Social Sciences, we have suffered a distinct loss. A man of radiant personality, all embracing sympathies and inexhaustible good humor, his personality won from his friends and associates an unwavering loyalty and devotion.

He was always a dominant figure, over-topping even the great offices he filled. As one of the Directors of the American Social Science Association, he gave to that venerable body many years of brilliant service.

Few men worked more intelligently and unselfishly than he when the Institute of Arts and Letters was being organized, or gave more disinterestedly and generously of his best, when the National Institute of Social Sciences was coming into existence.

He was "blessed with the great natural gifts of rapid, clear thinking," as some one has said of him, "and a fluency of tongue and pen possessed by but few." These gifts he expended without stint in our service.



## BY WAY OF INTRODUCTION.

BY HAMILTON W. MABIE, LL.D.

In his address at the Annual Meeting, held in New York on the afternoon of January 15, 1915, the President of the National Institute of Social Sciences defined its aim and spirit. The Institute, he said, does not assume to reward distinguished services to humanity; it aims by recognizing them to keep in the field of public attention men and women who stand for the real things of life, and whose work is a noble form of patriotism. It aims to set in places where they can be seen the real leaders of American life, the real exponents of democracy; those, in a word, who enrich our common life and define for us the ends which it ought to seek.

The Institute aims not merely to recognize those who conspicuously render services to humanity, but to bring into organized fellowship all who honor this ideal of devotion to the public welfare in quiet or public ways in all parts of the country; to create a body whose opinion shall have weight and influence in forming public opinion; to give those who are working in remote places, in an alien atmosphere, in loneliness and isolation, a sustaining sense of companionship; to publish a Journal which shall keep its widely scattered members in touch with one another by gathering up and reporting the movements, endeavors and enterprises which express the abounding life of the nation and record its progress in civilization, and by printing significant papers or discussions by its members.

The readers of the first number of the Journal of the Institute will decide in what measure it fulfils the definition of its purpose made a year ago. It does not ask the indulgence of its readers, but it does ask them to remember that its initial number must necessarily be somewhat experimental, and that the establishment of such relations with members as will enable its editor to present full reports of the manifold



activities they are carrying forward must be a matter of time and growth.

The character of the articles which will appear in this number and the standing and reputation of its contributors stand in no need of introduction or explanation.

Still more significant, as defining the aim of the Institute, are the brief reports of some of the ways in which its members are serving the commonwealth. Moral conservation in many forms, large provision for the needs and protection of foreigners, the protection of animals, scientific investigation aimed at the prevention and extirpation of disease, organized efforts to care for the sick and unfortunate, movements for civic betterment and to awaken a deeper sense of the duty of the citizen to the community, the forming of art alliances to bring art within the aim of the people of the country and to stimulate its production by making work of a high order accessible and by encouraging American workers in a field capable of immense development and service in this country:—these are some of the forms of service of the nation conducted or aided by members of the Institute.

These activities are all expressions of patriotism. Under the terrible cloud of war which overshadows half the world there has come into being a devotion to this country unprecedented in history. Life, fortune, ease, skill, comfort, civilization painfully won by centuries of self-denial, toil, heroic endeavor, have been exchanged by millions of men for wounds, bitter hardship, torturing death. And women are silently guarding the treasures of the home, gathering the harvests, bearing anguish with a silence which is a sublime form of courage, and sustaining the men in the trenches by a moral force more wonderful than the strength of armies and the power of the mighty engines of war. Under the cloud a radiant light of self-sacrifice rests on blasted fields and wrecked cities.

If America is to be not only prosperous but morally influential and spiritually respectable we must keep the soul of the nation alive and secure by the sacrifices of strength, time, thought, work and means that which shall take the place of the terrible discipline of war. We, too, must be ready to give

our lives for the nation in the ways of peace, as the peoples of Europe are giving their lives in the ways of war.

To stimulate this passion of devotion to country and humanity, to report the myriad ways in which patriotism can be translated into action, and to give men and women who are doing the work of patriotism in loneliness and isolation, the Institute of Social Sciences was organized and its Journal is issued.

To the vision, faith and tireless work of Dr. H. Holbrook Curtis, the Institute owes its existence and its rapid growth; and to the intelligent devotion and patience of Miss Lillie Hamilton French, its members are largely in debt for this first number of the Journal.

## THE BIRTH OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES.

BY H. HOLBROOK CURTIS, M.D.,  
VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The idea of a National Institute was formulated by the American Social Science Association, which was founded in 1865, its departments embracing those of jurisprudence, health, finance, emigration, education, prisons, charities, etc.

In time the department of charities was detached and given over to the organization which had emanated from the parent body, as was also the health department.\* Jurisprudence, finance, and prison reforms were specialized and taken over by individual societies. This was a natural evolution caused by the pressure put upon the departments and the lack of time for proper consideration of the ever increasing material presented.

For forty years the Association furnished a platform and audience, and about the only one then existing for the discussion of new ideas and suggestions relating to the betterment of existing sociological conditions. Its members comprised the leading men in the schools of philanthropy and modern thought. Here, Frank Sanborn, Charles W. Eliot, William Cullen Bryant, Theodore W. Dwight, Francis Bacon, Charles Francis Adams, Edward Atkinson, Louis Agassiz, J. Elliot Cabot, William M. Evarts, U. S. Grant, James Garfield, E. L. Godkin, Horace Greeley, William Jay, William Lloyd Garrison, John Sherman, Charles Sumner, Francis A. Walker, David A. Wells, Robert C. Winthrop, Dorman B. Eaton, George William Curtis, Daniel C. Gilman, and scores of others, made their influence felt. Their speeches are preserved in the Journal of the American Social Science Association, forty-six volumes of most important historic value.

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\*National Conference of Charities, founded in 1874. National Prison Association, founded in 1870. American Public Health Association, founded in 1872.



From the enormous scope and comprehensiveness of the body it became evident that still other departments must be detached and placed upon an independent footing. To that end it was determined in 1898 to organize certain sections of the Association into a National Institute somewhat on the lines of the Institute of France, the component parts of which might become independent, or remain as departments of the parent body, a step provided for under the provisions of its national charter granted by Act of Congress, January 28th, 1899. The National Institute of Arts and Letters was organized in 1898, and it is now a recognized body with a charter of its own. The National Institute of Social Sciences was constituted a department of the American Social Science Association and organized under its National Charter in 1912. Until such time as it may desire a charter of its own, the Institute of Social Sciences will use the power granted to it by the charter of the association and remain a department of that venerable body.

As stated in the constitution, the object of the Institute is to promote the study of Social Science. Its aim has been the formation of an authoritative body to discuss the questions of sociologic progress, and by getting together representative men and women who stand for the general uplift of humanity and the betterment of mankind, to construct an association which would be of special importance and use to the country and to the individual. The influence of this organization is hardly conceivable, but a brilliant future seems to be already assured. An important responsibility rests upon the members and the interest they take in the proceedings of the National Institute.

At this time of international complications and industrial disquietude, a wide field presents itself for the activities of such an institution. Opinions and suggestions which may receive the endorsement of a body possessing the intellectual spirit and dignity of the National Institute of Social Sciences must needs be authoritative.

In order to make the Institute a truly national body, every state should be represented in the council and have a committee of members to nominate candidates for election.

Meetings in various sections of the country would stimulate an interest in the Institute and further its aims. A plan is under way to have a suitable home in Washington, where a yearly meeting could be held. These and many other things affecting the plan and scope of the Institute are at present under discussion, but it will take some time to evolve the future plan of construction of this important organization.

## KEEPING OUR TREATY OBLIGATIONS.

BY THE HONORABLE SIMEON E. BALDWIN.

We joined, a few years ago, with Great Britain, Germany, and most of the other nations of the world, in executing what is known as the Hague Convention of 1907 for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes.

It pledges each of the signatory Powers to work together for the maintenance of the general peace; to promote by all the efforts in their power the friendly settlement of international disputes; and to seek to extend the empire of law and fortify the sentiment of international justice. After these generalities it comes down to particulars.

Article 9 provides that, in disputes of an international nature, involving neither honor nor essential interests, and arising from a difference of opinion on points of fact, it is expedient and desirable that the parties who shall not have been able to come to an agreement by diplomatic means, shall institute, so far as the circumstances will permit, an International Commission of Inquiry, to facilitate a solution of these disputes in clearing up the facts by an impartial and conscientious investigation.

Article 38 further provides that in questions of a judicial order and first of all in questions as to interpreting or applying international Conventions, arbitration is recognized by the contracting Powers, as the means most efficacious, and at the same time most equitable, of settling disputes which have not been disposed of by diplomatic means; and that therefore it would be desirable that, in respect to such questions, the contracting Powers should have recourse to arbitration, so far as the circumstances may permit. A standing court of arbitration is then set up, known as the Hague Tribunal.

We have disputes pending as to facts and as to law with Great Britain and Germany. Neither admits our contentions, and we do not admit theirs. We are at a diplomatic *impasse*.



But each of these Powers has offered, as respects some of these differences, to proceed for their settlement under the provisions of the Hague Conventions.

Two concern the sinking of ships at sea by German men-of-war. One is known as the case of the *William P. Frye*, an American merchant ship. It is a dispute over the amount of reparation to which we are entitled. As to that we have, in pursuance of our treaty obligations, accepted an offer from Germany to refer the question to the Hague Tribunal.

Another is known as the case of the *Lusitania*, a British ship. Germany claims that the *Lusitania* was armed and, whether armed or not, was constructed so as to carry cannon, and had been so armed on previous voyages, so that the commander of her submarine was justified in presuming her to be armed in this. She claims that the *Lusitania* belongs to the reserve force of the British navy, and was entered as such on her naval lists. She claims that the cargo was in large part made up of high explosives, designed for military use against her; that their explosion was the immediate cause of the sinking; and that had it not been for them, the blow inflicted by the submarine would not have sunk the ship until there had been time for the passengers and crew to get into the boats.

She claims that she was sunk when in a part of the seas known as a "war zone," or "military area," defined three months before her Proclamation of February 4, 1915, declaring it to be such; warning neutral vessels against the danger of entering it; and stating that every British merchant ship found within it would be destroyed, even if it should prove impossible, in doing so, to avert endangering the safety of crew or passengers. She claims that it has been, by general usage, for more than a hundred years, recognized as the legal right of a belligerent Power to mark off such a military area on the high seas, at least when it is a measure of retaliation, and that such was the character of her proclamation. She claims that our own Naval War College recognized this right, after full discussion, in 1912; and that the English Prize Courts recognized it in the Napoleonic wars. She claims that

the *Lusitania* was a faster ship than her submarine, and would probably have put on steam and got away, had she waited to give her warning to heave to.

We deny most of these claims. Our position is that the *Lusitania* was not armed, and never had been; that she carried no high explosives; and that whether she did or not, the blow she received was what sunk her, and sunk her so soon.

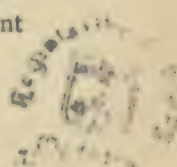
We also claim that the passengers embarked in ignorance of the likelihood of such an attack. Germany claims that the fact of her creation of a "war zone" around the British Islands was a matter of public notoriety; and also that her embassy here gave them sufficient notice of danger before they embarked.

These facts are material ones. They are incident to a dispute which involves neither the honor nor the vital interests of either government.

In a civil suit by an injured passenger on the *Lusitania* against her owners, evidence that he knew that he incurred imminent danger of a German submarine attack, before he took passage, would be important. It would tend to support a claim that he took the risk.

Germany gave us an affidavit signed by a certain individual, stating that he saw hidden cannon on the *Lusitania* shortly before she sailed. We looked him up, and he repeated his statement to our investigators. He repeated it under oath to a grand jury before which we brought him. We then arrested him for perjury in making that statement, and he was put in jail, to answer the charge before an American court.

As the two nations do not agree as to the facts thus involved, Germany has offered, in an official dispatch, to follow the plan of the Hague Convention and join with us in setting on foot an international commission of inquiry. We have not, as yet, accepted the offer. I hope we may follow the same course here that we followed in the case of the *William H. Frye*, or else express our willingness to refer all the questions involved, both of fact and law, to the Hague Tribunal. One of them—the right to create a "war zone" by proclamation—is clearly a question of law. We insist that under the ancient



and established rules of international law, there is no such right. Germany insists that, under the modern and established rules of international law, there is such a right. This is a fair question of debate, and the Hague Tribunal is the best existing means of deciding it. It may reasonably be looked to for a judgment that, in the language of the Hague Convention, will extend the empire of law, and fortify the sentiment of international justice.

To aid in promoting these we pledged the public faith when we ratified the Hague Convention.



## ART EXHIBITS IN AMERICA.

BY CORNELIA B. SAGE, LITT.D.,  
DIRECTOR OF THE BUFFALO FINE ARTS ACADEMY,  
ALFRIIGHT ART GALLERY.

Majestic in its beauty was the notable exhibition of the work of the late Constantin Meunier, which was brought to this country during 1913-1914. For the first time America had the rare opportunity of enjoying the sculptures and paintings of the great Belgian master, who, in his studio in the green environs of Brussels, wrought in clay and portrayed on canvas the epic of modern industrialism.

Meunier was the leader of the new school of realism in sculpture—the school which searches the field of labor to discover subjects in which a social and artistic interest are wedded. To Meunier, as to Millet, the text: "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread" was no empty formula, but an inspiration and a command. Meunier took, however, the purely modern attitude towards work. The Greek joy in physical exercise seems never to have been in his mind. His workmen toiled without exaltation, and in the mood of necessity. The shapes of their heads and their rounded shoulders indicated the subordination of mental and physical vivacity to sheer bodily force. No country has been more industrial than Belgium, the birthplace of Meunier. Within a few decades the meadows of Hainault, the leafy copes of Liège and the valleys of the Meuse and the Sambre have been seamed and blistered by myriads of collieries and iron-foundries. The whole face of the land has been seared and the sky blackened by fumes from countless chimneys and blast-furnaces. Man, instead of remaining pastoral, as is largely the case in France, has become a dusky subterranean creature. Everything, it would seem, has conspired to annihilate art and the sense of beauty, yet both have survived and have even taken on a new profound significance.

This was true until about the time when the Meunier Collection came to America a year and a half ago, and now beautiful Belgium is in ruins! The Meunier Exhibition was

organized by the Director of the Albright Art Gallery, who went abroad in 1913 to search for a foreign exhibition of high standard. Seeing many examples of the work of the great sculptor, and becoming enthusiastic, she went directly from Berlin to the famous old studio in the rue de l'Abbaye in Brussels, which remained as Constantin Meunier had left it, and where all of his masterpieces not in museums or collections, were gathered. Arrangements were completed with the heirs and the entire collection was brought to this country where it had an unheard of success, having been studied and enjoyed by 250,000 Americans in the museums of six of the largest cities in the United States: the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo; Carnegie Institute, Pittsburgh; Columbia College, New York; Detroit Museum of Art, Detroit; Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago; and City Art Museum, St. Louis. Twenty-nine sculptures were sold and remained in this country. The collection was returned to the Brussels studio on the 17th of July, 1914, by the Director of the Albright Art Gallery, who accompanied it, placing the bronzes on their pedestals, then leaving the next day for Venice. Having been caught in the war, marooned in Austria and Switzerland, having made a miraculous escape over the border at Pontarlier, and finally returning to Paris on a French military train three weeks from the day she had left, she found that the Germans had taken Brussels! The heirs of Meunier had fled to England, and implored the English Government to protect their treasures in Belgium! The bronzes are probably at the present time in Meunier's studio and the famous monument of Labour remains standing, it is believed, in the square of Louvain, that brave little city that was sacked. There the four reliefs on the monument, "Industry," "Harvest," "The Port" and "The Mine," showing a perfect picture of laboring humanity, the splendid presentation of the eternal struggle of man against the fatalities—seem the irony of fact! The great drama which is of all times, represented by Constantin Meunier in marble and in bronze, was a premonition perhaps of what was so soon to come. A struggle was made under a grander and more terrible aspect than in past ages, or than could have been conceived by the sculptor, who only dreamed and worked. All the sublime courage, the fierce energy, all

the material pride and progress reflected in Meunier's sculptures standing in the square of Louvain and in the Brussels' studio were realized in the Belgian people, who fulfilled to the last degree their destiny and Meunier's ideal. On the pinnacle of the monument to Labour, "The Sower," a statue of heroic size, stands now surveying the pathetic ruins of the city. This is not a being who suffers, but one who is victorious! With a great and triumphant gesture this sower seems to sow the seed which is to nourish the future generations. The statue is the symbol of the productiveness of work, the calm strength of his gaze denotes a human superiority and the hope of man in the days to come—Shall it now be realized?

Fortunate was America to have seen this exhibition. Fortunate now are museums possessing examples by the great Belgian sculptor, for who knows now the fate of these masterpieces of art? Certain it is that they could never again be collected and brought to our country!

From the above little story, not only may the fortunes of war be understood, but the dangers and difficulties attending the securing and bringing to this country foreign exhibitions. Yet our museums *must* have them, and great special exhibitions of American art, both of paintings and sculptures, must also be continually organized.

To Mr. Archer M. Huntington, America owes a debt of gratitude for having brought to this country not only the paintings of Spain's greatest masters, Sorolla and Zuloaga, which were exhibited at the Hispanic Society of America, but the works of Russia's most notable sculptor, Prince Troubetzkoi, exhibited at the Numismatic Society of America, both exhibitions taking America by storm! Sorolla's art, with marvelous, well nigh miraculous fecundity and quality, interprets all aspects and developments of contemporary Spain—portraits of royal personages, nobles, commoners, poets, scientists, soldiers, landscapes, and above all the bright and tender joys of infant life, the playful scenes of childhood often depicted in glowing colors on the beach at Valencia.

One of the chief characteristics of Zuloaga's work is that it reflects so abundantly a racial quality. Not only is it immediately apparent that his subjects are Spanish, but it is



even possible to tell from what province they come, and to what particular trade they are adapted, or to which social stratum they belong. Zuloaga's color is rich and sonorous, and his technique great and unusual.

Troubetzkoi is a creator of a spirited and graphic phase of modern sculpture. His art in its manifestation is essentially refined in its modern treatment. In its energy, yet delicacy of expression, it enlisted the esthetic sympathies of our cultured public, and the collection was deeply appreciated in the various museums where it was shown.

These were practically the first foreign exhibitions to be organized, and Buffalo was permitted to share with a number of other cities in their glory.

Another special exhibition of great importance brought from abroad was that of the Société Nouvelle of Paris, which was organized in 1911, and was the first collection of the works of those French masters, to be shown in America. Perhaps no other contemporary art movement has aroused more interest or has exerted greater influence than the Société Nouvelle of Paris, which is known to-day under the more general title of Société des Peintres et des Sculpteurs. This group is composed of the most important painters and sculptors of France, and has the distinction of claiming Auguste Rodin as its president. It will occupy a place of its own in the history of contemporary art and the artists and amateurs of the future will find among its members some of the most characteristic artists of our time. It was by reason of its greatness that the director of the Albright Art Gallery singled it out and went to Paris to try to bring it over for exhibition, and it was only when she reached Paris alone, unheralded, and in the interests of four large museums that she realized that she had attempted what proved to be almost the impossible! For three weeks she endeavored to interest the great artists, but was unsuccessful, as members of the Société Nouvelle never had consented to exhibit outside of Paris and the Galleries Georges Petit. All of the studios were visited, not only in Paris, but in Meudon where Rodin creates, in Saint-Cloud where La Touche painted, and various other out of town ateliers. The artists were charming and the wives and children sympathetic, but when pictures

for America were suggested they only exclaimed "Mon Dieu", and changed the subject! Three weeks passed with no success for the director who, nothing daunted, resorted to many ruses and much persuasiveness to accomplish her mission, from sitting for hours in front of doors of studios and galleries to politely waylaying artists and collectors. She finally appealed to Rodin and the directors of the Louvre and Luxembourg to help her and actually made her acquaintance with Henri Martin by pretending to be stopped in an ascenseur near his studio door, and feigning fright! Finally the climax was reached when Sorolla who was in Paris at the time, recognized in her his American friend, and embraced her at a French reception!

The result was that a collection of one hundred and thirty paintings and twenty-five pieces of sculpture was secured for America. Among the most important features of the Exhibition were the four pictures lent by the Luxembourg and the French Government, a favor which never before was granted to any country. The works of Carrière, lent by Madame Carrière, were an exhibition in themselves, and Rodin personally sent the sculpture—also afterwards wrote a wonderfully appreciative letter on the success of the exhibition, as président of the Société Nouvelle.

Just here be it said that two years later the organizer of the Société Nouvelle returned to Paris and was royally received and entertained by the entire French world of art and letters. The only thing that marred the visit was the death of Gaston La Touche, during the height of the enthusiasm. The director was counted among his mourners, and walked with the French officials behind the coffin of one of France's greatest painters.

A notable collection of textiles was also brought to America from Paris by the same director, and passed on to many other museums, as was also a collection of colored etchings by Bernard Boutet de Monvel, (now in the aeroplane squadron of France) and at the present time the life works of M. Roll, president of the Salon, have been brought over and are being circulated by her.

American exhibitions of great importance, both collective groups and those of separate artists, are constantly being

organized. Perhaps the greatest were those of James McNeill Whistler at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York; and a collection of the works of the same artist—owned by Richard Canfield—for the Albright Art Gallery; John Sargent in Boston, the sculpture of Augustus Saint Gaudens, which was shown in Washington and several other museums, and an exhibition of the life work of Edmund C. Tarbell at the Copley Gallery, Boston. Collections of the works of important American painters and sculptors, such as Henry Golden Dearth, Edward W. Redfield, Paul Manship, Robert Henri, George Bellows, Childe Hassam, William M. Chase, J. Alden Weir, Robert Reid, Willard L. Metcalf, and many others have been organized and are being seen in various museums, and appreciated by the American public.

It is realized that a renaissance of art is at hand, and that this rebirth into beauty seems to be coming largely in this country in the form of many art galleries and museums which rapidly are appearing in every city in America. The influence of their work is far-reaching and to them should be given the credit of the fast growing artistic enthusiasm of our nation.

Since the finding of America only a little over four hundred years ago, its civilization and the making of great fortunes for its betterment and the welfare of its people, have been to a certain extent accomplished; and now this generation in its enlightenment, is beginning to demand art, and art in every form. Very gradually all over this country conditions are changing, and a new intense interest is growing with astonishing rapidity. The great wealth of the nation and the love of travel have fostered ambition, founded upon a realization of the important part played by the fine arts in the life of the people of civilized Europe, as well as of Oriental nations. They have taught appreciation, and have furnished a background for artistic effort here. This broadened outlook has opened the eyes of the people and it is difficult now to find the smallest town in the United States which does not make some attempt to cultivate and encourage a taste for the arts.

The multiplication of regional and municipal art museums seems little short of wonderful when we remember that



before the Philadelphia Exposition in 1876 we had virtually none, and that until that time public interest in art scarcely existed. A report to the French government in 1893 showed a number of art collections in America, but these were only in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Chicago, Washington, Detroit, St. Louis and Cincinnati, and not more than three were twenty years old. The Metropolitan Museum of Art was founded in 1869; the Corcoran Gallery of Art was given to the city of Washington the same year. The Boston Museum of Fine Arts was established in 1870, and to-day it is a well known fact that of the six hundred museums of all classes in America three hundred are devoted wholly or largely to art, even though founded so recently in point of years.

Some of these museums are working for American Art, a few for localism. A number of galleries are interested in foreign masters. There are modern museums and those that are cultivating ancient and mediæval art, including the art of the Orient. The large museums are forming their collections in a rounded, well thought out method, and the exhibitions are shown chronologically in a most educational manner. This is especially true of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, and the Boston Museum, which are fast becoming important art centres, ranking with the Louvre, Paris, National Gallery of Art, London, and other great European museums. The art lovers and the general public of America are beginning to realize the immense importance and value of the Hispanic Society of America, the gift of Mr. Archer M. Huntington to New York. One is relieved to realize that there is in New York a museum where can be seen each day, not only the best representations of all the most able masters of painting and sculpture, but examples of pottery and the rarest books of Spain. Two of the most important acquisitions of the Hispanic Society are the world-famed "Portrait of the Duke of Olivares," by Velasquez, presented to the Society by Mrs. Collis Potter Huntington, as a memorial to her husband, and the superb little "Head of a Young Girl," also by Velasquez. There are also notable works by El Greco, Goya, Murillo, Ribera, Zubarán, and other early great Spanish artists and all modern Spanish painters

of worth, such as Sorolla, Zuloaga, Anglada-Camarassa are represented in the Hispanic Society of America.

The large museums have their representative exhibitions to depend upon, but the smaller galleries, not having sufficient wealth to add rapidly to their permanent collections, are obliged to hold special exhibitions to secure their attendance, and educate their people. Hence the cause of so many temporary collections being organized by active leaders in the world of art.

The introduction of the educational function into museums is the keynote of their phenomenal development in the past quarter of a century. They are now democratic in the highest sense, responsible directly to the people, and developing in proportion as they satisfy the needs of the people. Many of the museums and galleries are at the present time employing docents and offering lectures on their permanent or special exhibitions, in order to attract the general public and the school children, and cultivate in them a taste for art and the beautiful. Every new, largely planned public exhibition or collection in this country is at once a market for meritorious works of art, and a stimulus to taste and knowledge. The service of regional art alone, a field in which there is such great recent activity, would more than justify their increase. The private collections of America, as well as the museums, are of such importance that now it is considered necessary for the learned men of Europe, the art critics and heads of great museums, to visit, study and write about them. Three years ago Herr Doctor Wilhelm Bode, the Director-General of all the Prussian museums, and who has made the Kaiser Friedrich Museum in Berlin famous, made a general tour of this country. Two years ago Dr. Bredius, Director-General of the Holland museums, appeared especially to study the Dutch pictures in collections. Bernard Berenson comes often to interest himself in the Italian branch of art, and last year Paul Vitry, of the Louvre, made a prolonged stay in this country to study the masterpieces owned by American galleries and collectors, and especially any ancient, mediæval or modern art objects coming from France.

The Widener and Johnson collections of Philadelphia and the art palace of Mrs. John Gardner in Boston are a "Mecca" to which all foreign art savants and those of this country must



go; and they contain treasures of inestimable worth. The Frick Collection is becoming more and more valuable. It is principally composed of paintings of the sixteenth century from various countries, but recently Mr. Frick has added three of Mr. Richard Canfield's famous Whistlers, including "Rosa Corder." This collection is now housed practically in a little gallery of its own, in Fifth Avenue, New York.

Great works of the Spanish school in private collections are especially to be seen in the houses of Mr. Archer M. Huntington, Mrs. Collis P. Huntington, and Mrs. Havemeyer; those of the English school in Mr. H. E. Huntington's private collection. Several collectors in and out of New York interest themselves in modern American paintings, such as Mr. John Gellatly of New York, and Mr. Charles L. Freer, of Detroit, who has presented his great collection in its entirety to the nation, and who will also provide a home for it in a beautiful museum in Washington. Besides the American works including priceless paintings, water colors and lithographs by James McNeill Whistler, Mr. Freer's collection of Oriental Art is without doubt the most important in existence, not excepting those from the Imperial treasure houses of China and Japan, from whence many of the gems have been directly drawn.

Of French art in private houses Mr. James J. Hill, of St. Paul, excels in his collection of Barbizon masters, and Mrs. Simpson, of New York, in her group of Rodins and superb eighteenth century paintings. The Altman Collection, which has just been bequeathed to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, is of the very highest order of merit, and includes, besides famous old masters of various schools, many art objects marvellously wrought. The great Morgan Collection, recently shown at the Metropolitan Museum, is now being divided and therefore scattered. It contained many rare treasures, both in painting and decorative art.

It is said that, included in private collections and museums in this country, are six of the works of Vermeer, eight-two Rembrandts, innumerable Frans Hals, Van Dycks, some by Velasquez, Goya, Greco, and other works of the world's masters of all ages and countries.

Creative art is fostered in many private collections, notably that of Mrs. Chauncey J. Blair, in Chicago, in her collection



of Gothic and Renaissance art, now on exhibition at the Albright Art Gallery; Mr. Henry Golden Dearth, in his great collection now in his home at Montreuil-sur-mer, France; Mr. Henry Lawrence, of New York; Mr. Frederick Pratt, of Brooklyn, and others. The Metropolitan Museum of Art has a Gothic and Renaissance department, while the Boston Museum makes a specialty of Oriental art, in connection with its other innumerable fine collections.

Foreign exhibitions are very desirable for American artists. The work of our masters is important for foreign artists, and comparative exhibitions only serve to show the beauty of the work of all! What one has that the other lacks can be studied and acquired, and as Americans purchase works by foreign artists so we hope that collectors of foreign lands will buy American masterpieces.

The great movement of art throughout America which had its origin some years ago, but which at the present time is increasing in a way unheard of in history, is not confined to the artists, or the museums, or the schools; it is *general*, it is *everywhere*! It is born in the *souls* of the people! The museums cannot live without the artists; the artists need the encouragement of the museums; the schools need the education given by the work of the museums through the inspired productions of the artists. The field of endeavor in art has no defining fence; it is not a field—it is a whole country. The art world is one of beauty, of appreciation, of happiness. Citizenship in the world of art is open to all on equal terms, but the franchise is granted only to those who can prove themselves worthy—whether it be those who create art treasures, those who contribute them to their city or those who work for creators, or contributors, or bring them together. They can only qualify, who bring to their work concentrated attention, a sincere heart, an observing eye, in the interests of the art, whether it be in the creation or contribution of great art treasures, or in the harmonizing of the great God-given geniuses and the practical money making powers—with a deep sense of appreciation—to the support of the artists, the beautifying of museums and cities, and towards making America a treasure house of things artistic and soul satisfying.

## MAGNA CHARTA.

BY THE HONORABLE ELIHU ROOT.

Address by Mr. Root, as chairman of the meeting under resolution of the Constitutional Convention of New York in Commemoration of the Seven Hundredth Anniversary of Magna Charta, Assembly Chamber, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y., June 15, 1915.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,*—The Convention appointed by the people of the State to revise the fundamental law under which we live, as to the framework of government and the principles of public morality, has deemed it appropriate to arrange for a Celebration of the Seven Hundredth Anniversary of the Signing of the Magna Charta.

That was a great event in English history. The restrained and unemotional English themselves, in their most formal public documents, describe it as the Great Charter of English liberty. But it is not merely as a great event in English history that we celebrate it. It was a great event in our history, and it was a great event in the world's history.

That instrument which the barons compelled King John to sign contained no rhetoric; it did not philosophize; it was a plain, practical assertion of common rights fitted to the use of the people of England of that day. Hundreds of great declarations of principles have been made and forgotten since that time, but this simple, homely growth from the life of the English people has endured these seven hundred years.

The Charter was not a gift of privilege by the monarch. Hundreds of monarchs have granted privileges to their subjects since that time and the privileges have been forgotten, and the monarchs with them. It was an assertion of right by men who were willing to fight for their rights, and to die for them. And during all these seven hundred years, the men to whom that has been the Great Charter of liberties have been willing to fight for their liberties and to die for them.

But even those qualities were not the essential thing which kept alive this wonderful instrument, for seven hundred years. The essential thing was that the Great Charter asserted a principle of human liberty upon which rests the development of the freedom of the world. It asserted—it did not ask for—it asserted the rights of Englishmen as against their government, and superior to their government. Without rhetoric, without reasoning, without philosophy, it asserted those rights which, nearly six hundred years later, the sons of those Englishmen crystallized in the Declaration of American Independence, as the inalienable rights of man, to secure which governments are created.

There are but two underlying theories of man in the social relation to the state: One is the theory of the ancient republics, under which the state is the starting point from which rights are deduced, and the individual holds rights only as a member of the state. That was the theory of Greece, and Rome, and the Italian republics. The other is the theory of the Great Charter, the theory of the Habeas Corpus Act, of the Statute of Treasons, of the Petition of Rights, of the Bill of Rights, of the Massachusetts Body of Liberties, of the Declaration of Independence, of the American Republic, that the individual has inalienable rights, of which no government may deprive him, but to secure which all government exists.

The first theory, of the ancient republic, that the state is all in all and the individual derives his rights as a member, leads to the logical and inevitable result that the state is free from those rules of morality by which individual men are bound. It is the principle which was applied in Belgium. It is the principle which was applied to the Lusitania.

The other, asserted in the Great Charter, by logical and inevitable result binds the state by the rules of morality which the individual recognizes; and this supremacy of that rule of right, governing all men and all states and powers, is the hope of mankind.

The assertion of that great and eternal principle seven hundred years ago we celebrate as the greatest of all events in the political development of modern liberty.



## THE MORRIS PLAN.

BY HERBERT L. SATTERLEE, PH.D.

Surely a contribution to social science is made when the economic welfare of a nation is bettered. Such a betterment has been begun in this country during the past five years by the establishment of "The Morris Plan" companies for loaning money to people of moderate means and encouraging them to save from their wages and become investors.

It is only recently that we, as a people, have begun to appreciate the advantage of conserving and sensibly employing our great natural resources—our forests and our streams. And, curiously enough, in this land of highly developed ideas with regard to personal liberty and individual betterment, attention was called to the potential wealth in things material before it was directed to the economic value of the character and earning power of the wage-earners of the United States.

This most fertile ground for cultivating the public welfare was discovered abroad many years ago. In 1862 a young Italian, Luigi Luzzatti, went to Germany to study the system known as the Schulze-Delitzsch Banks. Adapting their principles to the customs and interests of his own people, he established in 1865 the Banca Popolare of Milan. This little bank, which started with a capital of \$5,400, made loans based on the "moral worth" of its borrowers, and encouraged them to deposit their small savings and become stockholders. How this system has grown may be inferred from the fact that in 1908 there were 690 institutions in Italy known as Banche Popolari, or People's Banks, and their annual statements showed aggregate deposits of \$170,091,946. During that year they had made over 2,500,000 loans of a total amount of \$329,212,000. In the same year the funds of these banks were invested in government and other first-class securities to the amount of \$114,652,800. So carefully is the credit of the borrowers investigated, that the average "bad loans," or losses, suffered by these banks in Lombardy (including the

great bank at Milan) are less than one six-hundredths of one per cent. of the amount loaned.

The German system referred to was begun over sixty years ago. In the year 1910 there were 1,051 of the Schulze-Delitzsch Banks for industrial workers in Germany, and during that year they loaned \$1,106,165,207. In addition to this system, the Raiffeisen Banks, aiding mainly the agricultural class, numbered 14,993 in 1910, and their aggregate loans in 1909 amounted to \$452,749,961. These latter banks, however, loaned not only on personal credit, but on mortgages on lands.

The Bank of France in 1913 discounted in Paris alone 4,563,306 notes (more than half of its note-discounting business in that city) for loans of not over \$20.00 each; and the figures for several years previous show that the volume of these small loans is singularly uniform.

It was a study of these foreign systems that led Mr. Arthur J. Morris, a lawyer of Norfolk, Virginia, to start a similar organization in his home city in 1910. Until that time the great bulk of the people of the country had been living in the economic "feudal ages." For the comparatively small number who had achieved financial independence by the accumulation of what are generally called "bankable securities," borrowing was made easy. To those who were without material possessions, but who had good character and earning power of hand and brain, there was no ready means of getting money in an emergency, and but few safe methods of investing comparatively small sums.

Character and earning power, however, are the greatest assets of an individual or a nation. The economic value of the first was signally mentioned by the late J. Pierpont Morgan when he was a witness before the so-called "Pujo Committee," of Congress. He was asked, "Is not commercial credit based primarily on money or property?" And, without hesitation, from the wisdom of his long business experience, he answered, "No, sir; the first thing is *character*." And because the statement attracted widespread attention it awakened the public consciousness to the value of The Morris Plan system and the need of more Morris Plan banks.

The economic value of earning power—that is, of the surplus above that which each man needs for the support of him-

self and his family—has, of course, always been recognized, and has produced our great life insurance companies, our rich savings banks, our powerful building and loan associations and, indirectly, for the most part our railroads and industrial enterprises. However, these institutions direct the savings into one or more specific lines of investment, and do not leave them in the liquid or immediately available condition in which they ought to be, in order to put the investor in a position to meet an emergency or take advantage of a business opportunity without some considerable percentage of loss.

The salaried man or woman, the wage earner or small dealer who has unexpectedly to meet the expenses of illness or death in the family, or who has the chance to purchase a stock of goods at auction, formerly had but few means of raising the ready cash. He could incur personal obligation by borrowing small sums from his friends or fellow-workers; or pledge his chattels with some pawnbroker or loan society; or, in the last and most frequent event, he could borrow from some money broker at usurious rates of interest, and find himself in the hands of a "loan shark."

If such a one should apply at a bank of discount or a trust company, he would be asked for that unfamiliar and unattainable thing called "collateral." Not having it, and being forced to resort to the only means known to him, he must invariably suffer delay and inconvenience and very often humiliation and overwhelming disaster. These things are of everyday occurrence. They happen to be perfectly respectable and reputable people of small means to the number of hundreds of thousands in each year. When the financial charlatan or political demagogue tells the people that "the banks are only for the rich man," and that the use of the money of the country (which is invariably described as having been produced by the wage earner alone), is only open to the favored few, his remarks find a ready lodgment in the mind of the small debtor. His predicament makes him susceptible to the suggestion of almost any scheme, however fantastic or opposed to his real interests, that seems to offer a deliverance from his harassing circumstances.

The Morris Plan is exceedingly simple and easily understood.



If a man owes a grocery bill of \$60.00 and a doctor's bill of \$30.00 he goes to a Morris Plan Company and fully explains his situation. He is put through a searching examination as to his earning power, the positions which he has held, the employers to whom he can refer, his personal habits and the necessity for the loan. If the latter is clearly shown and his character is proven to be satisfactory, he is asked to find two or more endorsers, each of whom will take the risk of the borrower's responsibility up to the amount of the loan. Very often these two endorsers are found in the grocer and the doctor, who prefer to get their bills paid by assuming a liability which is steadily reduced; and they at the same time keep the good-will of the customer or patient, who thus goes on dealing with them. If he remained their debtor, he would most naturally make the cash purchase of his necessities from some other grocer; or in case of illness, call in some other doctor.

The endorsers being obtained and the papers connected with the loan approved, the borrower purchases \$100.00 in par value of the company's investment certificates, to be paid for in instalments of \$2.00 a week, the payments extending over fifty consecutive weeks. At the same time he gives his note to the company, payable in one year (fifty-two weeks), and pledges as collateral security to the note the investment certificates which he has simultaneously purchased. He pays six per cent. interest per annum upon the loan in advance, and an investigation fee, which in the loan described would be an amount not to exceed \$2.00. There is, therefore, deducted from the \$100.00 the amount of \$8.00; and the balance is given him in cash, or—in the instance supposed—checks are drawn directly to the grocer and doctor, and their receipted bills are sent to him in due course. He has avoided collectors' importunities and law suits and has restored his credit.

At the end of fifty weeks, if he has made his payments faithfully, he owes nothing on the investment certificates which are the collateral to his loan; and two weeks later, when the loan becomes due and payable, he can either have the company redeem its certificates and pay itself the loan and give him back his note cancelled; or he can take out full-paid certifi-

cates and deposit them, without endorsers, as collateral for a new loan. At the end of the second year, if he has met his instalments, the loan is paid and he is handed his certificates, which have all the time been earning him five per cent. interest toward the six per cent. which he has paid to the company. He has been both borrower and investor since the inception of the loan; and at the end of the operation he has been transformed from a debtor to a creditor.

In the five years during which The Morris Plan has been in practical operation tens of thousands of people have been taught how to become savers. They have been turned from economic revolutionaries to conservatives, and have added to the wealth producing power of the community. But more than that: having stood the character test, these borrowers have become practical examples to those of their fellows who have like necessities but who are more self-indulgent or irresponsible. The man who sees another, who works at the same bench, borrow when he himself cannot, is apt to stop and think of the reason why, and, impelled by his needs, try to qualify as an honest borrower. And the man who has borrowed has not only lost nothing in self-respect, but the fact that he has a bank of his own, and a definite interest in its success, almost invariably proves a stimulant to better effort and, in his own view, adds a value to his principles and dignity to his earning power which they never had before.

The statement of The Morris Plan Company of New York, which began business on December 31, 1914, shows that during the first ten months of its existence it loaned \$597,500 to 5,136 people—an average of \$114.67 to each. The figures shown by the Industrial Finance Corporation (which organizes and assists the development of Morris Plan companies all over the United States), disclose that the twenty-eight companies now in operation have loaned a total of about \$12,500,000 to nearly 100,000 people; and new companies are being organized every month.

All this is strictly business. There is no hint of charity connected with it, and no patronizing philanthropy. The Morris Plan companies earn enough, from the difference between the interest which they collect and the interest which

they pay, to meet their running expenses and return a dividend to their stockholders sufficient in amount to tempt investors. The total of the "bad loans" or losses has not exceeded one-tenth of one per cent. of the amount loaned. The system is a practical experiment in Social Science, which by experience has been developed to meet the needs of the American people, and which is helpful to them in their lives and of incalculable benefit in the development of character and the material available resources of the nation.

In Italy, shortly before the war, three of the Banche Popolari (those at Milan, Padua and Novara) had a total turnover in one year of \$1,000,000,000—just twice the amount that the financial interests of America recently loaned to England and France. There is no reason to doubt that the growth of the system in this country will surpass that of the similar systems abroad. And if that proves to be true, the people of "small means" of the United States, using *character* as the basis of their credit, may exercise in the aggregate the broadest economic influence and be the strongest financial power that the world has ever seen.



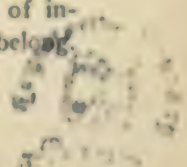
## THE STORY OF STAR LIGHT.

BY ANNIE J. CANNON.

Since 1882, with increasing skill, astronomers have been able to photograph star light in such a manner that the marvelous wireless message from the distant body may be deciphered. The light from the star falls through a prism placed in the telescope, and thus magnified is split up into a band showing its component colors, the red rays going to one end, and the violet rays to the other. This is the spectrum of the star. The photograph does not show the colors, but what is more important, it does show the presence of fine dark lines, few in some spectra and numerous in others. These wonderful dark lines have become a veritable happy hunting ground of the modern astronomer. By comparing them with lines given by glowing earthly substances in his own laboratory, he can determine what elements familiar to us also exist in the outermost star. By measuring the position of these mysterious lines he can discover whether the star is approaching us or receding from us. At the Harvard Observatory for years the Director, Professor Edward C. Pickering, has photographed the heavens systematically in this manner from the North to the South Pole. This work has been carried on by the late Mrs. Henry Draper, of New York City, as a memorial to her husband, Dr. Draper, who was the first to obtain a photograph of the lines in star light.

We have studied in detail the lines of all the brighter stars, and have arranged the spectra in an orderly sequence, beginning with stars which appear to be "young" and very hot, going through all the stages to those which are "old" and cooler.

In very recent years, remarkable relations have been found to exist between the class of spectrum and other properties of the stars, such as their distances and motions. It is for this reason that astronomers engaged in various kinds of investigations wish to know the class to which the stars belong.



At no other observatory is there material for the determination on such a large scale as at Harvard. It has, therefore, been my good fortune to make a study and classification of all the stars whose spectra are sufficiently clear on the Harvard photographs. The observations were begun in 1911, and were completed in October, 1915. The spectra of more than 200,000 stars have been studied, and will be published as the New Draper Catalogue, which will fill eight quarto volumes of the Annals of Harvard College Observatory. The results will help to unravel some of the mysteries of the great universe visible to us, in the depths above. They will provide material for investigation of those distant suns of which we know nothing except as revealed by the rays of light, travelling for years with great velocity through space, to be made to tell at last their marvelous story on our photographic plates.

## THE MENACE OF RACIAL DETERIORATION.

BY PROFESSOR IRVING FISHER, PH.D.

The most vital problem before the world to-day is the problem of preventing racial deterioration. The stamina of the human race is menaced in at least two special ways: one the sudden change in conditions of living to which the human race has been subjected during the last few generations involving higher nervous tension, greater specialization of work, and the dissipations which a new complex and urban civilization bring. Race poisons, like alcohol and tobacco, to say nothing of the more pernicious habit-forming drugs, a diet over-nutritious, over-concentrated, over-nitrogenous, and lacking the hardness and toughness necessary to keep the teeth and jaws healthy, are special features in man's new and artificial environment. The movement which seems to me to aim most directly against these evils is that of the Life Extension Institute of New York City, of which Mr. Taft is the Chairman of the Board of Directors, and which has the co-operation of Gen. Gorgas and other medical celebrities and experts. I hope that the book just being issued on "How to Live" may be widely and earnestly read, and that its various forms of Social Service may be utilized to the full.

The second great cause tending to produce racial degeneration is war. Of all the tragedies of the present war the greatest is one we seldom see mentioned, the destruction of the flower of the manhood of Europe. We can afford to see the material wealth accumulated through generations destroyed, the art products of centuries trampled under foot. These are, relatively speaking, of trifling consequence, and within a generation may to some extent be replaced. We could even afford to witness with some equanimity the destruction of millions of lives if these lives were of inferior quality; but the destruction of the best means an irreparable blow to man as man; a turning back toward the lower forms of life from which man sprang. Germany will suffer the



most, because its medical selection of its soldiers is the most efficient and because in proportion to its population its losses will be the greatest. If Germany should win and get all the glory of world conquest, its losses in vital stamina would far outweigh these baubles. In fact, its supremacy could scarcely endure through many generations, because with the lowering in physical, mental and moral stamina must come a lessening in efficiency similar to that which came to Rome, to Spain, and to the other nations which have dug their own graves through militarism. The future Bismarcks and Von Moltkes, Mozarts and Beethovens, Humboldts and Helmholtzes, Gausses and Leibnizes, are being shot down at the present moment. As Bernard Shaw has said, "a nation is like a bee, when it stings it dies." There is only one source for the future generations of men, namely: the men who live to-day. Any damage to one point in the continuous chain of life is transferred to the links which come later.

The movements for permanent peace and the movements for eugenics and race betterment are the ones directed most definitely against race deterioration. The Second Race Betterment conference recently held at the Panama-Pacific Exposition had much to say on these themes.

There is not space to go into the details of the various proposals which have been made to meet the situation, but the first step is certainly to increase the interest of the general public and to educate it to a more vivid realization of how grave a situation it is. The menace of race deterioration is all the more serious because masked behind rapid and engrossing material progress of all kinds. The Biblical maxim, "What profiteth a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul," might be paraphrased for present application to "What profiteth the human race if it conquers through machinery and invention the whole material world, but loses its own physical, mental and moral stamina?"

## A NOTE ON SOCIAL ASPECTS OF NEW DATA ON THE BIOLOGY OF SEX.

BY OSCAR RIDDLE, PH.D.,

CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF WASHINGTON, STATION FOR EXPERIMENTAL EVOLUTION, COLD SPRING HARBOR, LONG ISLAND, N. Y.

Data are at hand which, we believe, demonstrate that sex in some animals has been experimentally reversed and controlled.\* Usually the means or methods of control must be applied to the forming, growing egg—before the embryof ormation begins. Two important facts are disclosed by this result: First, sex at one stage in the organism is sufficiently *plastic* to suffer itself to become completely moulded into either of two extremes—male or female. Second, it is an *environmental* factor, or group of factors, in all these cases of sex-reversal that presses the sex-development from one channel to another.†

In addition it has been shown that among the doves and pigeons—with which our studies have been made—birds can be produced which exhibit all degrees, or at least various degrees, of sex. The human species almost certainly presents a similar graduation of sex within each of the sexes. In that species, too, it is known that many of the features or characteristics of sex develop long after social influences begin to affect the life and nature of the individual. Finally, our studies show that sex-differences are based initially upon differences in rate of tissue change (metabolism); and the question whether early social influences—including habits, environment, occupation‡—may increase or diminish this basis upon which sex differences rest is clearly suggested.

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\*The author's own data on this subject are mostly still unpublished; only condensed statements of addresses before scientific societies have appeared in print: SCIENCE N. S. XXXV, 1912, p. 462; SCIENCE N. S., Vol. XXXIX, 1914, p. 440; BULL. AMER. ACAD. OF MED., Vol. XV, No. 5, 1914, p. 265. In the latter article are given the references to the results of other workers on the control of sex.

†It is known that some animals produce germs of two kinds. If these germs are given usual or "normal" conditions of development, union, and growth, the germs of the one kind will all produce one sex; the germs of the other will produce the opposite sex.

‡That the size of an individual is a physical characteristic capable of modification (nutrition, occupation, disease, etc.) has long been recognized.

The evidence at hand is convincing on the point that the eggs which prospectively will produce males have a higher rate of metabolism than have female-producing eggs; yet, as has been noted, proper treatment at this early stage can effect complete sex-reversal.\* Meanwhile studies on the relative metabolism of the human male and female have shown that here, too, a higher metabolic rate obtains in men than in women.† The difference is perhaps five or six per cent. Now it is certain that the rate of metabolism in individuals is not a changeless and unalterable value, but is impressible in measurable degree. And, the factors of highest potency in effecting these fluctuations are in considerable measure those connected in one way or another with voluntary and essentially controllable aspects of the organized life of mankind. In general, these factors relate to activities, nutrition and habits. Are the wide and often nearly continuous fluctuations in the basic metabolism produced in these ways of no effect upon those sex-characteristics which develop only at, and long after, adolescence? Is the shifting of the basal metabolism which in the egg-stage is able completely to reverse the sex of the individual (to change the sort of primary sex-gland it shall develop) absolutely incapable—when continued over many years—of affecting in the growing person the nature or degree attained by those sex characters which then develop?

Unless these questions can be answered definitely in the negative it would seem to follow that not a few of the economic, educational and social institutions of man are at present innocently implicated in juggling with mankind's natural capacity for normal and full sex development.‡ What proportion of the millions of the inadequately-sexed may have been thus produced or influenced?

It is not our purpose here to pursue the problem presented into any part of the field of sociology; nor indeed to pursue or discuss it at all; to present the problem is the sole aim of these paragraphs. Supplementary to the preceding we will

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\*It is, we believe, by means of a shift of the metabolism that the change in sex is effected.

†For the most recent and accurate results, and for earlier literature see F. G. Benedict and L. E. Emmes, *JOUR. BIOL. CHEM.*, Vol. XX, 1915.

‡The author does not believe that ALL of the cases of inadequately sexed individuals have their source in factors of postnatal life. Certainly most, if not all, of the gross morphological (germ-gland) aberrations to be met with are referable to conditions in the germ.



briefly refer to some biological data which broadly confirm the main principle which is here under discussion—the plasticity of sex under environment, and the possibility that those features of sex which develop late in life are influenced by the habits, customs and organized life of civilized man.

Since Darwin we have known that species of animals thrown under new conditions—e. g., domestication—may become more masculine, or more feminine in certain respects. In his “Descent of Man” he cites the cases of the males of some breeds of fowls which have lost their masculine tail-plumes and hackles. And, on the other hand, a case where sex differences were increased under domestication. The merino sheep in which the ewes have lost their horns being an example. That the female may also easily acquire masculine characteristics, is evidenced by several sub-breeds of Polish fowls in which the hens acquire spurs whilst young. The cuckoo with its nearly or quite complete loss of maternal instincts from the females, and an accentuation of the masculine characteristics in both sexes, is another instance.

It seems, indeed from conditions found in some genera of birds (*Turnix*, *Pedionymus*) that the male may lose all of his maleness except perhaps the sex-glands, and that the females of these forms may secure all these same masculine characteristics. There are, according to Cunningham, “twenty-one species of *Turnix*—all small quail like birds, most nearly related to fowls and rails—and in all these species the female is larger than the male, and usually has the more handsome plumage. According to Hume, only the females call, and only the females fight. The males, and the males only, sit upon the eggs, the females meanwhile calling and fighting without care for their obedient mates. The males, and the males only, tend the young brood. Darwin mentions that the females, and not the males, of the Indian species are kept by the natives for fighting, like gamecocks.” It is true, further, that whole classes of animals have the characteristics of one or the other sex in preponderating degree. But the citations already given perhaps suffice. We have referred to these facts because of what they indicate as to the plastic nature of sex. From the practical human standpoint they show a flexibility of sex under environment which man—a maker of environments—

may not long or safely remain ignorant of. They come to us out of Nature's own experiments—experiments that have gone on for ages, and have swung millions of individuals, perhaps thousands of species, and some classes, perhaps phyla, from one gradation of sex to another. Surely, for mankind, sex is a racial asset; and its conservatism would seem to be a racial problem.

If certain of the characteristics of sex are indeed appreciably influenced by the (later) environment then those *sex-characteristics in a species which already moulds its own environment*, are largely at the mercy of elements created by the species. And this holds quite true whether the individual, or the species, is conscious or unconscious of what is happening. Differentiation in the developing organism inexorably responds to given stimuli in a given way. If we wish to vary or influence the result we must look toward a change in the stimulus—to a change in the environment. Can the activities and organized life of the sexes of mankind be safely and permanently planned without reference to the metabolic differential which gives rise to sex distinctions

In this connection, however, one does not forget that biological requirements are not the sole executors of a civilization; though all must be wrought by, through and upon, the living framework. Social, esthetic and economic needs certainly have powerful claims in all the adjustments of organized society. It may well be that biological exigencies will have to yield—sometimes to social, sometimes to esthetic, sometimes to economic ends, that a balance may be struck in favor of general progress. Dogmatism here, in the presence of so many unexplored variables, would be indefensible. But it seems important for mankind to recognize here, as elsewhere, its assets and liabilities; important for the scientific, educated, progressing part of the public to know, what, at any rate the unscientific part of it does not yet seem clearly to grasp—namely, that to attempt to solve some problems involving the transformation of human environment without attention and respect to the biological factor is to invite the presence of surprises in the result.

## ONE WAY OF ESCAPE FROM THE ABYSS OF WAR.

BY CHARLES W. ELIOT,  
PRESIDENT EMERITUS OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

The following article appeared as a letter to the *New York Times* of July 16, 1915:—

The inferences of the first importance are military and naval. In the conduct of war on land it has been demonstrated during the past eleven months that success in battle depends primarily on the possession and skillful use of artillery and machine guns. The nation which can command the largest quantity of artillery in great variety of calibre and range, has developed the amplest and quickest means of transporting artillery and supplies of all sorts, and whose troops can use mortars, howitzers and cannon at the highest speed and with the greatest accuracy will have important advantages over an enemy less well provided, or less skillful. Before every assault by infantry artillery must sweep and plow the position to be captured, and so soon as the enemy has lost a trench or a redoubt the enemy's artillery will try to destroy the successful troops with shell and shrapnel, before the enemy's infantry makes a counter-attack. Whenever troops have open ground to cross before they reach the intrenchments of the enemy, they encounter a withering fire from machine guns, which is so effective that assaults over open ground have, for the most part, to be undertaken at night or in fog, or by some sort of surprise.

In general the defense has great advantage over the attack, as regards expenditure of both men and munitions. So decided is the advantage of the defense, that Germany can dismiss all those apprehensions about invasion by the Russian hordes with which she set out on this war. Success in military movements on a large scale depends on the means of transportation at hand; and these means of transportation must include railroads, automobiles, and horse wagons, the function of the automobile being of high importance wher-



ever the roads are tolerably good. There is little use for cavalry in the new fighting; for aeroplanes can do better scouting and more distant raiding than cavalry ever could, and large bodies of infantry with their indispensable supplies can be moved faster and further by automobiles than cavalry could ever be.

The aeroplane also defeats the former use of cavalry to screen from the enemy's view the movements of troops and their trains behind the actual fronts. Moreover, cavalry cannot stand at all against the new artillery and the machine gun. An old-fashioned cavalry charge in the open is useless, and indeed impossible. Aerial warfare is still undeveloped, but the war has proved that the aeroplane, even in its present imperfect condition, is a useful instrument. The Zeppelin, on the other hand, seems to be too fragile and too unmanageable for effective use in war. Rifle fire is of far less importance than artillery and machine gun fire; and, indeed, the abandonment of the rifle as the principal arm for infantry is clearly suggested.

Elaborate forts made of iron and concrete are of little use against a competent invader, and fortifications round about cities are of no use for protection against an enemy that possesses adequate artillery. For the defense of a frontier, or of the approaches to a railroad junction or a city, a system of trenches is immeasurably superior to forts, particularly if behind the trenches a network of railways or of smooth highways exists. Wounds are often inflicted by jagged pieces of metal which carry bits of dirty clothing and skin into the wounds, and the wounded often lie on the ground for hours or even days before aid can reach them. Hence the surgery of this war is largely the surgery of infected wounds, and not of smooth aseptic cuts and holes. A considerable percentage of deaths and permanent disabilities among the wounded is the inevitable result. Surgeons and dressers are more exposed to death and wounds than in former wars, because of the large use of artillery of long range, the field hospitals being often under fire.

From these changes in the methods of war on land it may be safely inferred that a nation which would be strong in war on land must be strong in all sorts of manufacturing,

and particularly in the metallurgical industries. A nation chiefly devoted to agriculture and the ancient trades cannot succeed in modern war, unless it can beg, borrow, or buy from sympathizers or allies the necessary artillery and munitions. No amount of courage and devotion in troops can make up for an inadequate supply of artillery, machine guns, shells, and shrapnel, or for the lack of ample means of rapid transportation. Only in a rough country without good roads, like the United States in 1861-65, or Serbia or Russia now, can the rifle, light artillery, and horse or ox wagons win any considerable success; and in such a country the trench method can bring about a stalemate, if the combatants are well matched in strength, diligence, and courage.

The changes in naval warfare are almost equally remarkable. Mines and submarines can make the offensive operation of dreadnaughts and cruisers near ports practically impossible, and can inflict great damage on an enemy's commerce. Hence, important modifications in the rules concerning effective blockade. In squadron actions victory will probably go to the side which has the gun of longest range well-manned. Defeated war vessels sink as a rule with almost all on board. Commercial vessels can seldom be taken into port as prizes, and must therefore be sunk to make their capture effective. There have been no actions between large fleets; but the indications are that a defeated fleet would be sunk for the most part, the only vessels to escape being some of the speedier sort. Crews would go down with their vessels. Shore batteries of long-range guns can keep at a distance a considerable fleet, and can sink vessels that come too near. Mines and shore batteries together can prevent the passage of war vessels through straits ten to fifteen miles wide, no matter how powerful the vessel's batteries may be. Every war vessel is now filled with machinery of various sorts, much of which is delicate or easily disabled. Hence a single shell exploding violently in a sensitive spot may render a large ship unmanageable, and therefore an easy victim. A crippled ship will probably be sunk, unless a port is near.

To build and keep in perfect condition a modern fleet requires dockyards and machine shops of large capacity, and great metallurgical industries always in operation within the

country which maintains the fleet. No small nation can create a powerful fleet; and no nation which lives chiefly by agriculture can maintain one. A great naval power must be a mining, manufacturing, and commercial power, with a sound banking system available all over the world.

The war has proved that it is possible for a combination of strong naval powers to sweep off the ocean in a few months all the warships of any single great power, except submarines, and all its commerce. Germany has already suffered that fate, and incidentally the loss of all her colonies, except portions of German East Africa and Kamerun, both of which remnants are vigorously assailed and will soon be lost. Nevertheless, she still exports and imports through neutral countries, though to a small amount in comparison with the volume of her normal trade. Here is another illustration of the general truth that colonies are never so good to trade with as independent and prosperous nations.

Again the war has proved that it is not possible in a normal year to reduce by blockade or non-intercourse the food supply of a large nation to the point of starvation, or even of great distress, although the nation has been in the habit of importing a considerable fraction of its food supply. An intelligent population will make many economies in its food, abstain from superfluities, raise more food from its soil, use grains for food instead of drinks, and buy food from neutral countries so long as its hard money holds out. Any large country which has a long seaboard or neutral neighbors can probably prevent its non-combatant population from suffering severely from want of food or clothing while at war. This would not be true of the districts in which actual fighting takes place or over which armies pass; for in the regions of actual battle modern warfare is terribly destructive—as Belgium, Northern France, Poland, and Serbia know.

A manufacturing people whose commercial vessels are driven off the seas will, of course, suffer the loss of such raw materials of its industries as habitually came to it over seas in its own bottoms—a loss mitigated, however, by the receipt of some raw materials from or through neutral countries. This abridgment of its productive industries will, in the long run, greatly diminish its powers of resistance in war; but



much time may be needed for the full development of this serious disability.

Because of the great costliness of the artillery, munitions of war, and means of transportation used in the present war, the borrowings of all the combatant nations are heavy beyond any precedent; so that already all the nations involved have been compelled to raise the rates of interest on the immense loans they have put upon the market. The burdens thus being prepared for the coming generations in the belligerent nations will involve very high rates of taxation in all the countries now at war. If these burdens continue to accumulate for two or three years more, no financier, however experienced and far-seeing, can imagine to-day how the resulting loans are to be paid or how the burden of taxation necessary to pay the interest on them can be borne or how the indemnities probably to be exacted can be paid within any reasonable period by the defeated nation or nations.

It follows from these established facts that a small nation—a nation of not more than fifteen millions, for example—can have no independent existence in Europe except as a member of a federation of States having similar habits, tendencies, and hopes, and united in an offensive and defensive alliance, or under guarantees given by a group of strong and trustworthy nations. The firm establishment of several such federations, or the giving of such guarantees by a group of powerful and faith-keeping nations ought to be one of the outcomes of the war of 1914-1915. Unless some such arrangement is reached, no small State will be safe from conquest and absorption by any strong, aggressive military power which covets it—not even if its people live chiefly by mining and manufacturing as the Belgians did.

The small States, being very determined to exist and to obtain their natural or historical racial boundaries, the problem of permanent or any durable peace in Europe resolves itself into this: How can the small or smaller nations be protected from attack by some larger nation which believes that might makes right and is mighty in industries, commerce, finance, and the military and naval arts? The experience gained during the past year proves that there is but one effective protection against such a power, namely, a firm

league of other powers—not necessarily numerous—which together are stronger in industries, commerce, finance, and the military and naval arts than the aggressive and ambitious nation which heartily believes in its own invincibility and cherishes the ambition to conquer and possess.

Such a league is the present combination of Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, and Japan against the aggressive Central Monarchies and Turkey; but this combination was not formed deliberately and with conscious purpose to protect small States, to satisfy natural national aspirations, and to make durable peace possible by removing both fear of invasion and fear of the cutting off of overseas food and raw materials. In spite of the lack of an explicit and comprehensive purpose to attain these wise and precious ends, the solidity of the alliance during a year of stupendous efforts to resist military aggression on the part of Germany and Austria-Hungary certainly affords good promise of success for a somewhat larger league in which all the European nations—some, like the Scandinavian and the Balkan, by representation in groups—and the United States should be included. Such a league would have to act through a distinct and permanent council or commission which would not serve arbitrary power, or any peculiar national interest, and would not in the least resemble the "Concert of Europe," or any of the disastrous special conferences of diplomatists and Ministers for Foreign Affairs, called after wars since that of 1870-71 to "settle" the questions the wars raised.

The experience of the past twelve months proves that such a league could prevent any nation which disobeyed its orders from making use of the oceans and from occupying the territory of any other nation. Reduction of armaments, diminution of taxation, and durable peace would ensue as soon as general confidence was established that the league would fairly administer international justice, and that its military and naval forces were ready and effective. Its function would be limited to the prevention and punishment of violations of international agreements, or, in other words, to the enforcement of treaty obligations, until new treaties were made.



The present alliance is of good promise in three important respects—its members refuse to make any separate peace, they co-operate cordially and efficiently in military measures, and the richer members help the poorer financially. These policies have been hastily devised and adopted in the midst of strenuous fighting on an immense scale. If deliberately planned and perfected in times of peace, they could be made in the highest degree effective toward durable peace.

The war has demonstrated that the international agreements for the mitigation of the horrors of war, made by treaties, conferences, and conventions in times of peace, may go for nothing in time of war; because they have no sanction, or, in other words, lack penalties capable of systematic enforcement. To provide the lacking sanction and the physical force capable of compelling the payment of penalties for violating international agreements would be one of the best functions of the international council which the present alliance foreshadows. Some years would probably be required to satisfy the nations concerned that the sanction was real and the force trustworthy and sufficient. The absolute necessity of inventing and applying a sanction for international law, if Europe is to have international peace and any national liberty, will be obvious to any one who has once perceived that the present war became inevitable when Austria-Hungary, in violation of an international agreement to which she herself was a party, seized and absorbed Bosnia and Herzegovina, and became general and fierce when Germany, under Prussian lead, in violation of an international agreement to which she was herself a party, entered and plundered neutralized Belgium.

A strong, trustworthy international alliance to preserve the freedom of the seas under all circumstances would secure for Great Britain and her federated commonwealths everything secured by the burdensome two-navies policy which now secures the freedom of the seas for British purposes. The same international alliance would secure for Germany the same complete freedom of the seas which in times of peace between Germany and Great Britain she has long enjoyed by favor of Great Britain, but has lost in time of war with the Triple Entente. This security, with the general ac-



ceptance of the policy of the "open door," would fully meet Germany's need of indefinite expansion for her manufacturing industries and her commerce, and of room "in the sun" for her surplus population.

It is a safe inference from the events of the past six months that the longer the war lasts the more significant will be the political and social changes which result from it. It is not to be expected, and perhaps not to be desired, that the ruling class in the countries autocratically governed should themselves draw this inference at present, but all lovers of freedom and justice will find consolation for the prolongation of the war in this hopeful reflection.

To devise the wise constitution of an international council or commission with properly limited powers, and to determine the most promising composition of an international army and an international navy are serious tasks, but not beyond the available international wisdom and goodwill, provided that the tasks be intrusted to international publicists, business men of large experience, and successful administrators, rather than to professional diplomatists and soldiers. To dismiss such a noble enterprise with the remark that it is "academic" or beyond the reach of "practical" politics, is unworthy of courageous and humane men; for it seems now to be the only way out of the horrible abyss into which civilization has fallen. At any rate, some such machinery must be put into successful operation before any limitation of national armaments can be effected. The war has shown to what a catastrophe competitive national arming has led, and would probably again lead the most civilized nations of Europe. Shall the white race despair of escaping from this hell? The only way of escape in sight is the establishment of a rational international community. Should the enterprise fail after fair trial, the world will be no worse off than it was in July, 1914, or is to-day.

Whoever studies the events of the past year with some knowledge of political philosophy and history, and with the love of his neighbor in his heart, will discover, amid the horrors of the time and its moral chaos, three hopeful leadings for humanitarian effort, each involving a great constructive invention. He will see that humanity needs supremely a sanc-

tion for international law, rescue from alcoholism, and a sound basis for just and unselfish human relations in the great industries, and particularly in the machinery industries. The war has brought out all three of these needs with terrible force and vividness. Somehow they must be met, if the white race is to succeed in "the pursuit of happiness," or even to hold the gains already made.

## SELF GOVERNMENT IN THE TROPICS— AN ANALYSIS.

THE POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF THE TEMPERATE  
TOWARD THE TROPIC AND SUB-TROPIC ZONES, ESPECIALLY AS  
AFFECTING THE RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES  
TOWARD MEXICO AND THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

BY SAMUEL L. PARRISH.

Climatic conditions have not only played a determining part in the past economic and political history of the world, but are of pressing importance to this country at the present time in connection with its attitude toward those parts of the tropics which are forcing themselves upon our attention.

Take a map of the world, or better still a terrestrial globe, and girdle the earth with the parallel lines of the thirtieth degrees of north and south latitude, and you will have contained therein what is generally known as the "heat belt", wherein the average mean temperature throughout the year is about 68° Fahrenheit. Within this belt, enclosed by the lines running twenty-three and a half degrees north and south, lie the tropics proper, with a much higher mean temperature. On each side, north and south, between the twenty-third and the thirtieth parallels, lies a zone somewhat loosely called the sub-tropics.

Within this sub-tropical territory, climatic conditions are for the most part sufficiently similar to those of the tropics to make such generalizations as hereinafter follow approximately applicable. The enervating character of the climate, combined with the bounty of nature, which, in return for little labor, supplies the limited wants of the natives, has from time immemorial within these zones produced a population essentially inefficient as compared with that of the temperate zone. Taking then the whole heat belt as a starting point, an inspection of the map will disclose, speaking broadly, the following geographical facts:

Within this belt, in the western hemisphere, will be found most of the peninsula of Florida, the West India Islands,



Mexico, Central America and the territorial bulk of South America.

In the eastern hemisphere lie practically the whole of Africa, the extreme north and south being alone excluded, a large part of Arabia, southern Persia, Baluchistan, nearly the whole of India, Burmah, Siam, and the Malay Peninsula, French Indo China, southern China, the islands of the Indian Ocean, including the Philippines, and Oceanica, those myriad islands of the Pacific, embracing Hawaii. To this vast domain should be added, in the southern hemisphere, northern Australia. The Philippine Islands lie entirely within the tropics proper.

The theme of this article, namely, the development, in barest outline, of four propositions in connection with the future orderly progress of this vast area of human activity will be made more clear by constantly keeping the above facts in view.

My first proposition is that the economic importance of the tropics in their relations to the temperate zone is constantly increasing. To the civilized nations of antiquity, the tropics were practically unknown. As the most important example of the truth of this statement it may be noted that the Roman Empire, relatively the most extensive and powerful political combination known to the ancient or modern world, was never successfully extended (outside the narrow valley of the Nile and adjacent territory) to the south of the thirtieth degree of north latitude. But with the dawn of the modern era the whole scene changes. At the end of the fifteenth century, there was inaugurated, for the first time in history, the system under which we are now living, whereby the Caucasian deliberately set before himself the task of dominating, directly, or indirectly, every corner of the earth's tropical surface which by its products could in any way add to the wealth and prosperity of the temperate zone. And into this vortex of competition for control the United States has at last been unwillingly, though irresistibly drawn.

The story of the initial struggle for world supremacy among the European nations, though a familiar one, and only incidental to the development of my argument, is so fascinating that it may well bear repeating here.

At the time of the discovery of America, and the passage to the Indies around the Cape of Good Hope, or comparatively soon thereafter, there were in the world just five civilized, consolidated, maritime, powers capable of taking part in the approaching struggle for world empire, namely, Spain, Portugal, Holland, France and England.

Germany and Italy, hopelessly divided for the most part into insignificant and continuously warring little states, were, for the purposes of world aggression, merely geographical expressions, and Russia, as known to-day, did not exist. Spain and Portugal were the first in the race, and through the genius and daring of their native and adopted navigators and adventurers, had, in an incredibly short space of time, brought under the flags of their respective countries, at least prospectively, the whole of the tropical world in the western, and no small part of that in the eastern hemisphere. Later on came the Dutch, establishing themselves, first as traders and then as sovereigns, in the most important of the large islands of the Indian ocean, and there they remain to-day. Strange as it may now seem, France and England were the laggards in the race and when they woke up to what was going on around them, they discovered that most of the undeveloped tropical world, then considered of value, had already been appropriated by the three other powers.

To-day, of the original five maritime European nations, practically but three are left,—England, France, and Holland—which undertake to administer the Government of a tropical country from the temperate zone. Three others have, however, loomed up within the last forty years as factors to be reckoned with in the solution of the colonial problems of the world; Germany, powerful and aggressive, adding enormously to the complications which must be encountered; Italy, a country which must of necessity play a modest part; and Russia, who up to the present time has, in view of her geographical position, decided to confine her energies to the development of her vast empire by the consolidation of contiguous territory within the temperate zone. And here it may be noted as a generally accepted fact that the desire of Germany to obtain “a place in the sun” or, in other words, her ambition to share in, if not become a dominating factor in,

the control of the tropics is one of the most potent of the underlying causes of the present conflict now raging throughout half the world.

Returning to the main line of argument, I would like to call attention to the vast increase in the relative trade of the temperate zone with the tropics as shown by the trade statistics published by the various governments. Anyone who will study these figures will at once recognize that the first point has been reasonably demonstrated, namely, the wonderfully increasing commercial importance of the tropics in their economic relations to the temperate zone.

This brings me to my second point, namely, the impossibility of colonizing the tropics by white immigration on a scale of sufficient magnitude to affect local industrial conditions. Attention is invited to the fact that according to the Philippine Gazetteer, issued by the United States War Department some years ago, there were in the City of Manila, on May 1st, 1901, 2,382 Spaniards out of a total population of about 245,000. Manila being the centering point for the trading class, it would seem therefore an exaggerated estimate to place the resident Spanish population through the Islands, after a political domination of over three hundred years, at over one-half of one per cent. In the Dutch East Indies, the resident Dutch population seems to be even less. In India the proportion of resident European civilian whites to the whole population is probably considerably less than one-tenth of one per cent. In Venezuela, the Encyclopedia Britannica gives a pure Caucasian population of about one per cent. In Jamaica it would appear to be about two per cent. In Mexico, owing to climate conditions resulting from the lofty table land formation, about fifteen per cent. In subtropical South Africa, this table land formation, combined with the discovery of gold and precious stones, must also be noted as a condition permitting and inviting development of the country by the presence of the white man in large numbers. Speaking then in a general way, it would seem that the above figures fully sustain the second point, namely the impossibility of colonizing the tropics by white immigration. Experience has taught the white man that he cannot do



continuous manual labor under the usual conditions prevailing in tropical countries, and therefore he avoids them.

My third point is that experience has shown that stable self-government, carrying with it the impartial administration of justice and the equal protection of the law to all classes of inhabitants, is impossible in the tropics if left in the hands of an indigenous population, without supervision.

In an examination of governmental conditions, which, from time immemorial have existed in the tropics, I can find no instance of an orderly self-government, with representative institutions, envolved from the people themselves. Nor, on the other hand, have the efforts made by England in recent times to introduce responsible self-government in her tropical dependencies given any encouragement that the issue of such experiments will prove successful. The mental, moral, and economic factors are all at variance with the conditions required for an orderly self-governing community. Of the millions of men who now occupy, and of the untold millions, who, since recorded time, have been the indigenous inhabitants of the tropics, I think it may safely be said that no one commanding figure, judged by world standards, has ever emerged from the mass to challenge the admiration of the world as a benefactor of mankind.

The one exception that occurs to me, somewhat ominous though it be, is Mohammed, born just under the tropic of Cancer. What his influence for good or evil may have been or now is, I cannot at present attempt to inquire. Gautama was born at the foot of the Himalaya Mountains. Confucius was the product of the temperate zone.

But in art and science, literature and law, in constructive statesmanship, and in the scientific regulation of the relations of men toward each other in all the complexities which go to make up what is known as civilized society, we must look, with two or three interesting primitive exceptions in the subtropics, to the inhabitants of the temperate zone alone for the accomplishment of valuable results.

For the creation of a self-governing community, in which the rights of all classes shall be respected, I conceive there are necessary at least four precedent conditions; first, a general recognition of the dignity of manual labor; second, the

existence of an intelligent public opinion, as a court of final appeal, whose mandate must be obeyed; third, a willingness on the part of the minority to submit, without question, to the will of the majority as legally expressed at the polls; and fourth, the existence of an incorruptible judiciary to impartially administer the law in the interest of the weak no less than in that of the strong.

The limits of this Journal will not permit a detailed examination into these four sub-propositions, but I submit that not even the most ardent advocate of self-government in the Philippine Islands can successfully maintain that any of these precedent conditions, either separately or in combination, now exist, or, within any appreciable time, are likely to exist among the indigenous inhabitants of that tropical dependency of the United States. Orderly self-government never came as a gift from above.

The fourth and last proposition which I have undertaken to develop is: that controlling economic conditions, external and internal, no less than moral obligation, will increasingly compel the United States, as potentially, if not actually, the most powerful of the civilized nations, to bear its full share in the system of dependent tropical government and supervision now recognized as an international factor of unquestioned and growing importance. Of this question it may be said that since our Civil War none more vital has confronted the American people and in the course of its solution may well be found practically most of the future danger points which must ever beset a progressive nation in the conduct of its political relations with the other nations of the world.

In considering broadly the development of inter-racial relations between the dominant and inferior races during the past century, one cannot but be impressed by the fact that the current has been distinctly in the direction of altruism, so far at least as Great Britain and the United States are concerned, and that, too, notwithstanding the recent outbreak of savage war among the dominant races who themselves inhabit the temperate zone.

Slavery has been abolished throughout Christendom, and oppression, injustice, and internecine strife have, more and

more, been giving place to orderly government throughout the tropical dependencies ruled from the temperate zone.

Warren Hastings would be an anachronism in the India of to-day, while venal Spanish colonial governors in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines already seem to belong to a by-gone age.

Powerful as was the factor of self-protection in our late war with Spain, a sense of moral obligation alone made that war popular.

But in considering the moral we must not forget the economic side of the question.

As we note the progress of society through its various stages of evolution, there is nothing more striking than the constantly increasing importance, during the past fifty years, of the economic phase of international relations.

But the source of this superabundant energy and resultant accomplishment has been in the temperate zone, and now, as never before, it seeks outlets in the furthest corners of the earth. With the vast increase in the wealth of the dominant races, an ever-increasing demand is being made upon every heretofore outlying tropical province of the world to furnish whatever it can best produce, and receive in return therefor such products of the temperate zone as may be suited to its requirements.

And if for any reason this production and consumption are retarded by internal disorder, or conditions that science or skill can remedy, then these northern cormorants for economic results insist upon furnishing the remedy. The recent disturbance in the sisal-hemp district of Yucatan which threatened the binding twine industry of the United States, and therefore the American farmer, would seem to have stirred the present Administration to greater activity (if we except the incident of the failure to salute the flag) than anything else that has happened in Mexico for the past two years.

To bring order out of chaos for the purpose of permitting the normal economic development of a tropical island at our very doors was at least one of the avowed objects of our late war with Spain.

In the train of that war followed, in natural sequence, our occupation of the Philippine Islands, for in the redistribution



of territory and spheres of influence, since the beginning of the decay of Spain's colonial empire, both in the temperate and tropic zones, the United States has been continuously, since the foundation of our government, Spain's actual and logical heir. Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines are but corollaries of Florida and the original Spanish North American territory which came to us by forced cession after the Mexican War.

To what lengths the combination of economic necessity and moral obligation may yet compel the United States to go, no one may with safety predict, but I submit that we cannot stand still. With the completion of the Isthmian Canal and the resultant increase in tropical trade, new problems arise.

The upholding of a political idea, labelled republican, as in Mexico, but in reality anarchic or despotic, and which is not only practically barren of beneficial results, but stands rather as a menace to the economic advancement of the world, will, I am inclined to believe, appeal less and less to the practical side of the American character. When the present situation is more fully realized, we may well come to the parting of the ways, and the question that may yet divide our own political parties will be our attitude toward the countries to the south of us in the Western Hemisphere. What that attitude may be, will, I think, depend largely, so far as the approximate future is concerned, upon the success or failure of our present experiment in the Philippine Islands.

Should results falsify the prophets of evil who have declared that the government of a tropical dependency is beyond the legitimate sphere of a democratic republic, then I believe we will venture still further into the troubled waters of tropical supervision, following in the footsteps of England.

As between such a solution and the introduction of European ascendancy in those countries, should such an alternative be presented, as well it may be, I assume that the American people would not long hesitate.

Should we in the future be compelled to assume toward Mexico, as well we may, the same relation we have maintained toward Cuba since the Spanish War, there can be little question but that this unfortunate so-called republic would at once become a much more desirable member of the

family of nations, both from a domestic and foreign standpoint, than it has ever been in its whole history. That a movement in that direction should have been so long delayed can be nothing but a source of mortification to a great majority of the American people.

That the commanding influence of the Anglo-Saxon in controlling the policies of the world has been constantly on the increase during the past two hundred and fifty years is a matter of common knowledge.

Whether that supremacy is to be successfully challenged and set aside by Germany as the result of the war now being waged in Europe remains to be seen. It would certainly be a sad day for the many tropical dependencies of the British Empire were the practices of the rigid drill-masters of Germany to be substituted for the beneficent methods of Great Britain in dealing with the natives of India and the innumerable islands of the tropic sea now under British supervision or control.

But coming now to the concrete problem of the relations of the United States toward the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, I submit that the Filipinos, for the purpose of considering those relations, may be divided into the four following classes:—

First—A handful of idealists, much given to copious quotations, largely from French authors. These quotations deal, for the most part, with the abstract principles of liberty.

Second—The mute, densely ignorant, overwhelming majority, composed of all the different races speaking diverse languages, whose only idea of government now is, and always has been, obedience to those who have been set to rule over them by some higher power.

Third—A somewhat wavering, partially educated, small minority, easily influenced, and without any very definite principles to guide their political conduct.

Fourth—A small group of educated men who have both the intelligence and the will to make their influence for good powerfully felt among their countrymen. From this class have come the men whose aid and support must have been



invaluable to the Taft Commission and its successors in their arduous labors for the improvement of existing conditions. That this class has been much discouraged by the methods of the present Administration can hardly be doubted.

Of the idealists it may be said that they exist in all communities, and though often valuable members of society, they are not likely to be men of much weight in the daily conduct of public affairs. In periods of acute unrest and widespread popular discontent, when some great social upheaval is impending, they are most likely to play an important part. Men of this stamp were conspicuous at the time of the French Revolution.

To the second class, namely, the ignorant mass, must be mainly directed our efforts to ameliorate present conditions throughout the islands.

To give some idea of this ignorance, it may be noted that with a property qualification of two hundred and fifty dollars, or an annual tax of not less than fifteen dollars, or a knowledge of the Spanish or English languages, or the holding of some municipal office under Spanish rule, the number of qualified voters would be somewhat less than two per cent. of the population, though the introduction of public schools, wherein the English language is taught, has doubtless of late somewhat increased this proportion.

From the small third class, who may be termed the opportunists, we must, for the most part, in conjunction with men taken from the fourth class, select those to whom shall be confided, under American control, the practical details of local government.

Each nation which has heretofore attempted tropical dependent colonial government has insisted upon conducting its own experiments in its own way, and I submit that the sooner we learn the various lessons in store for us the sooner will we arrive at a satisfactory conclusion as to the wisest course to pursue.

"The English brain and the Egyptian hand" was Lord Cromer's guiding maxim in the regeneration of Egypt during the nearly thirty years of his wonderfully successful administration of the affairs of that country, and so I believe it will be found that, for an indefinite period in the future, the ulti-



mately responsible officers of the Philippine ship of state must be American, if the crew, no less than the officers, are to safely continue the voyage so auspiciously begun. But to fit them for their responsibilities the officers must be trained, and, following in the footsteps of England, we must have a competitive, stable, high salaried and absolutely non-political colonial civil service, if we are to succeed. When the novelty is over, high salaries and a recognized progressive career will alone enable us to obtain the grade of men necessary for the work we have undertaken in the tropics.

In this article I have sketched, if only in shadowy outline, some at least of the relations which I conceive to exist between the temperate and the tropic zones.

That the development of these relations upon right lines in the future must be a matter of the deepest importance and concern to the American people goes without saying.

Whether the outcome of the present struggle in Europe for world supremacy, whatever it may be, will tend to accentuate or diminish that importance is a question for the American people themselves to determine.

## ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL SUMMARY OF THE GENERATION JUST CLOSING.

BY WILLIAM H. TAFT.

Address delivered at Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.,  
Thursday, January 21, 1915.

It has seemed to me appropriate this morning to invite your attention to the consideration of some of the important political and social currents since the Civil War. That struggle was the climax of a controversy that rent the country over the moral issue of slavery, and we did not really recover from its effect for more than a decade after peace was declared. The pseudo-prosperity that the currency inflation gave us, and the panic and depression of 1873, were sequels of the war and were part of the cost. When specie payments were resumed in 1878, the country was restored to a normal condition, and from that day the subsequent business growth of our country on a sound basis began. From that time, for more than a quarter of a century, our material expansion has exceeded anything in history. The settlement of the unoccupied lands of the west, the spread of agriculture, the construction of railroads, the growth of industries and the development of all our national resources have doubled and redoubled our wealth until its statistical description is monotonous. One of the important elements in this progress has been that of combination and organization. The field of invention in the industrial arts has been a great one, and the combination of mechanical elements into complicated devices has often added a hundred fold or more to the power of production of a single laborer. In no field has the ingenuity of the American shown its exceptional character so much as in this of invention and discovery.

In the use of capital, too, the possibility of saving by enlargement and organization of equipment and plant has been demonstrated. The little rills and streams of the savings of the wage-earners and those of moderate means have

been directed into reservoirs of immense capital funds, which under the management of men of executive genius have metamorphosed our manufacturing industries and our transportation systems, and have reduced in a way we hardly realize the cost of production. By this principle of combination our citizens have been given a larger power *per capita* of producing wealth than ever before in the history of the world.

In the progress that civilization makes, however, new evils appear as concomitants of our advance, and new problems are presented and new remedies are made a necessity. The tremendous power which the combination of capital gives to the comparatively few persons who must control its use, if that use is to be effective, tempts them to an abuse of the power. The rapid growth of wealth between 1880 and 1900 absorbed the attention of all our people. Material development became the cry, and the settlement and expansion of the country became the one great popular ideal. It was growth and size that we were aiming at. It was the invitation of capital to investment that seemed the highest good. We were all absorbed in the chase for the dollar. Professions became commercialized and the success of a man was measured more by his ability or luck in amassing money than by his character or public usefulness. It was an age of the formation of great corporations, and then of the combination of these great corporations again into mammoth trusts. In the newer country, to induce rapid development, legislatures and municipal bodies parted with special privileges and did not guard their use or their retention, with any care as to the future public weal.

This principle of combination was found quite as applicable to politics and party government as to machinery and capital. By the use of patronage and the use of money, bosses established their power and created machines that worked with the same force and accuracy and smoothness as a Corliss engine or a Standard Oil Trust.

The great corporations found it useful first to restrain hostile legislation and then to secure affirmative legislation giving them undue advantage in the conduct of their business. The time came when it was possible in some great



corporations for the officers and directors to issue with the same nonchalance and certainty of their being complied with, orders for steel rails or industrial equipment, on the one hand, or for the delivery of delegates in a state, county or national political convention, on the other.

In the early years of this century the people became fully aroused to the fact that they were almost in the grasp of a plutocracy. Warnings had come to them in the decade before, and effort had been made by legislation of a tentative character to meet the anticipated danger, but it was not until the decade between 1900 and 1910 that the full force of the threatened control over our government and our politics and our business became clear to them. The agitation grew to be nation wide, the indignation of the people became acute, the demand for appropriate legislative and executive action became imperative, and the effect upon our politics and our business was made manifest.

The interstate commerce law, passed in 1887, was the first legislation in our history in which Congress had exercised in any full measure the control that the constitution gave it over our interstate railroad system. It was seen that the arterial circulation of our interstate transportation was tainted with unjust discrimination in favor of the largest shippers who were able to use this unlawful preference to suppress their less powerful competitors and to enrich their coffers with unlawful gains. The law did not, however, entrust sufficiently broad and direct powers to the Interstate Commerce Commission which it created, and the railroads blown with pride treated the Commission with derision and flaunted their defiance of its orders in the face of the people. Amendment after amendment followed, and for more than two decades, the controversy went on between the railroads and the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the Government until the weakling board of 1887 grew into the powerful tribunal of 1910, and the railroads found themselves brought under complete governmental control.

This history of the interstate commerce law and its enforcement contains one of the most useful lessons to those who would defy the people in the pride of intrenched power. It may take years but "all the people cannot be fooled all

the time." I listened to a most interesting speech by the worthy President of a railroad that has been brought to grief through the headstrong defiance of popular will by his predecessor, in which he set forth in plaintive but forcible language the present subjection of the railroads to official regulation. I could not but contrast his manner and matter with what his predecessor would have presented to such an audience ten years ago.

A similar change can be traced in the effect and enforcement of the anti-trust law, though this has been brought about in the course of judicial interpretation and decision rather than by amendment. In 1890 Congress passed the Sherman Act to forbid restraints of interstate trade in the forms of trust and monopoly, leaving to the courts to enforce the law and interpret its general terms. The first decision was unfortunately narrow and the great industrial and railroad combinations repeated the error which had been made in respect to the interstate commerce law, and flouted the new measure. It took twenty years of executive prosecution and judicial construction to show the power that was in the law, and to-day no investment is made, no combination is carried through without the utmost anxiety and care on the part of those who are promoting it, to avoid violation of the terms of that comprehensive statute.

In politics the name of the machine has become anathema. The cry that a candidate is supported by the bosses has been in the last decade often sufficient to carry the popular vote against him. There has been a tremendous rousing of the public opinion and popular political action. Corporations have been driven out of politics, and while of course corruption is not ever absent, the danger of plutocracy has disappeared and the purification of politics has constituted a real reform for which all good citizens must be grateful.

Popular indignation cannot be really roused or the leviathan of the people be stirred to action such as they have thus taken and stop short at the line of wise moderation. Part of the cost of the original disease is in the incidental damage from the inevitable excess or remedy. The hostility of legislatures and of Congress consciously or unconsciously has come to be directed against all successful investment of cap-



ital without discrimination. The inquisitorial and nagging character of the powers of commissions created for the close supervision of corporate activities has so frightened capital as to shrink investments and stop normal expansion in the business of the country. No one is so timid as controllers of capital and no persons are so easily able to take care of what they control. A hostile spirit manifested in legislation buttons up their pockets.

The sad feature of such excess of remedy, however well intended, is that the persons who suffer most are those who are least able to bear suffering, the wage-earners whose comfort and living are dependent upon regular employment. In time of great prosperity, when wages are good, and employment constant, and everybody is comfortable and snug with a consciousness of power, there is a full opportunity for the play of the forces of class jealousy and discontent with inequality, and the popular delusion spreads, that legislation can do anything. Schemes for forcing, not equality of opportunity, but equality of conditions, are proposed. Measures are adopted to strike at the successful without distinction as to whether their success is dependent upon legitimate methods or otherwise.

The close and absolute supervision over the management of railroads and the restriction upon their rates, together with the increase, or the maintenance, of wages through the power of the trades-unions have ground the railroads between the upper and nether millstone and prevented a fair return upon their capital. The solvency of some is threatened and all this is to the detriment of the business of the country, and especially to the comfort and happiness of wage-earners dependent on normal business and a normal demand for labor.

We are all in the same boat. The prosperity of each class is largely dependent on the prosperity of all. The bad conditions of one class reacts upon that of all the others. This is no reason why we should not repress injustice and take away its opportunity and punish abuse of power. But it is a reason why we should not indulge in excess and injure all classes by injustice to one.

But the people of the United States are intelligent. When they suffer in the discipline of adversity brought on by their



own mistakes, they are quick to see them and to remedy them, and such excess as I have described are only the natural outcome of the just indignation that was excited by capitalistic abuse of power and we must look now to a retracing of our steps to the line of moderation and justice.

We must grant increased rates to the railroads when the conditions require it and grant them quickly. Their prosperity is important to the prosperity of the country. Their needs constitute a substantial per cent. of the demand for our manufactured goods. Millions own their stock. They employ millions of men.

We must not allow the outrageous injustice to continue by which we inaugurate the real reform of parcel post and do it at the cost of the railroads by compelling them to carry the enormous increase of traffic for nothing.

We should repeal the full crew bills that impose upon the railroad companies the burden of employing unnecessary labor.

In retracing our steps to cure these excesses, there is no reason why we should not maintain the real progress that we have made in disenthroning plutocrats and in making those who choose to exercise public franchises serve the public for not more than a reasonable profit.

Another most successful instance of the application of the principle of combination has been seen in the development of trades-unions. Wage-earners, especially those engaged in skilled manual labor, have united in a common cause, have organized, have appointed leaders to represent them in the inevitable friction of interests between labor and employers as to the terms and conditions of employment. No change in our social condition, it seems to me has been more beneficial on the whole to the working men than has this resort to the power of combination among them. There is no doubt that at common law the rules governing the relation of the employee and the employer were framed in the interest of the employer. The single employee was at great disadvantage in seeking favorable terms of employment or in maintaining them. By union, however, the wage-earners have been able to place themselves upon an equality of dealing with their employers. By joint contributions, they create funds which

maintain them pending disputes over terms. Their quitting employment in a body has proven a real inconvenience and a real interference with the employer's prosperity, which makes it a powerful leverage in maintaining their reasonable demands. On a rising market the combination of laborers can compel their employers to give a just share of the increased profit of their joint product in the form of advanced wages, and on a falling market they can restrain the employer from undue haste in making cut. Of course wages are determined in a free market by the law of supply and demand and no combination can ultimately avoid an adjustment in accord with that economic law. But in the meantime trades-unions can protect the workman against the undue haste and greed of employers.

The trades-unions have secured great benefit to their members because of the political power they have exercised. This they have been able to wield not because they constitute a majority of the community, for the members of trades-unions and organized labor are very much in the minority even among wage-earners; but they are a forceful, well-directed, compact body, active and influential in every local community, as well as in the nation at large and are supposed to hold a balance of power in many legislative and congressional districts. They have been able to moderate the severity of the common law against their class, to impose upon employers obligations in respect to the safety and health of the place of labor, and the use of safety appliances in dangerous employment, to abolish the inequitable fellow servant rule and to obtain workmen's compensation acts insuring the workmen against disabling accident. Some of these workmen's compensation acts are crude and unjust in operation, but the principle has been accepted and I doubt not in the course of time when properly worked out, they will inure to the benefit not only of the employee, but the employer and the community.

These are the advantages of trades-unions. We should know that they have come to stay and to remain powerful factors in the progress of the community. But evil tendencies have appeared in such combinations just as in combinations of capital. Trades-unionism has tended to create a deal level

of industry and skill among wage-earners. By securing the same pay for the good worker and the poor one it takes away the motive in the individual working man for greater industry and higher skill. These tendencies, we may hope, trades-unions themselves will ultimately seek to mitigate and neutralize for their own good.

But the chief ground for criticizing the recent policy of trades-unions is the fact that the power they have legitimately acquired by combination and have properly used for the betterment of their conditions, they are now attempting to abuse by seeking to place organized labor in a privileged class. Congress and legislatures have not deemed it necessary to take the same pains to impose detailed restrictions upon the possible abuse of the power of trades-unions as in the case of railroad companies and trusts. To those who are injured by the abuse of their power by trades-unions, ordinary principles of law offer remedies which are probably sufficient. But the unions are not content with this freedom from special legislative restriction. They are demanding from legislatures and from Congress that common law and equitable remedies be suspended against their methods of industrial warfare, which have been declared to be illegal by the courts. They have succeeded in some of the states, as they have succeeded in England. They have partially succeeded in Congress, but not as fully as their leaders represent, in the passage of what is called the Clayton Act.

The Anthracite Coal Commission, appointed by President Roosevelt, which settled the anthracite coal strike, and which contained a representative of organized labor upon it, made a report that the compound boycott was one of the most cruel and illegal instruments that could be evoked in a labor dispute, and they strongly condemned it. There are three kinds of boycott—the primary boycott, the secondary boycott and the compound boycott, so-called. When a body of workmen withdraw from employment and notify their employer that unless he complies with their demand they will not work for him, nor will they patronize him in any way—that is what is called a primary boycott. It is legal and always has been. They may use the normal inconvenience that such withdrawal from employment and withholding of



custom enable them to inflict on the employer to induce him to a compliance with their terms. When they enlarge the field of inconvenience to him by trying to persuade others to sympathize with them and join them in withholding custom or valuable association of any sort from the employer, they are engaged in a secondary boycott.

The Clayton Bill in my judgment makes legal a secondary boycott of this description and it thus authorizes the use of an instrument in industrial warfare that may work unjust hardship.

The compound boycott, however, is much more dangerous to the community and it would be a serious public injury to make it legal. It seeks to draw into the controversy by compulsion members of the community who have no normal relation to the issue between the contestants in the labor dispute.

A is an employer and B is the body of the employees in a trade-union and C is a customer of A. If the B trade-union has a labor dispute with A, and B notifies C that he must withhold his custom from A, or B will boycott him also, this is a compound boycott, both against A and C.

It was illegal at common law and gave an action for damages to both C and A and was a criminal conspiracy, punishable as a misdemeanor. Its evil is in the opportunity by moral duress it gives the striking and boycotting workmen to involve the whole community in the fight and array them against A.

The Supreme Court of the United States has held that such a compound boycott used to destroy the interstate trade of a hat manufacturer in Danbury, Connecticut, was a violation of the Anti-Trust Act and has sustained a judgment for \$225,000 against members of the trade-union which carried on the boycott. In my judgment there is nothing in the Clayton Act passed last year which would prevent a similar judgment for similar acts in the future.

We in the past found corporations exercising undue privileges to the disadvantage of the people which the people in the enthusiasm of material expansion had unwisely granted them, and now in the reaction we find that the movement toward curtailment of their powers has gone beyond the median line, has resulted in injustice to them and injury to

the community. On the other hand, we found that the wage-earner class was suffering from a fundamental and unjust disadvantage in dealing individually with capital. In order to put them on an equality with their employers so that they might secure a proper share of the joint product of labor and capital, it was necessary to recognize the legality of combination among them. Through the power that they have been exercising, they now seek to obtain undue privilege.

We are now halting in business and progress and are learning the unwise steps we have taken that need retracing. We need not go back to the conditions that led to the great reform and we shall not do so. But we should go back to the line of justice and equity.

Another most important development in this country has been an attack upon our representative system of government as the cause of the corporate and corrupt control of politics. It was said that the system involved the selection of agents by the people to act for them in executive and legislative work who too often proved faithless, and that the only method of carrying on the government safely was to dispense with legislative agents and let the people legislate directly. A most formidable wave of public opinion in favor of such a change has swept the country and has found expression in the initiative and the referendum. After a study of the working of these innovations, I do not hesitate to say that it proves the un wisdom of such changes. If it be true that a people have not information and intelligence to select from their own number competent and honest agents to do their work, they certainly have not the capacity to perform the much more difficult task of passing useful judgment on statutes, frequently difficult to construe or understand. Again the duty imposed upon the people in legislating by initiative and referendum is so much more burdensome than that imposed by the representative system in selecting agents to do this work that the majority of the voters too frequently refuse to perform their electoral duties and thus leave to a minority of the electorate, the decision of important questions submitted by referendum. The majority of the electorate thus show that they do not approve the reference to them of such difficult questions. The statistics show that at the same elec-



tion at which officers are to be elected, and measures referred are to be voted upon, the proportion of those who vote upon the measures is rarely more than sixty per cent. of those who vote for candidates and not infrequently is as low as twenty-five or thirty per cent. thereof. In the election in 1912 in Oregon the electors were called upon to vote upon the question of adopting thirty-one complicated statutes. In order to explain the issue thus presented, the state published a volume containing two hundred and fifty closely printed pages and circulated it among the voters. I ask this intelligent audience to look into their hearts and answer me truly and say how many of them in preparation for such an election would read diligently through that volume of two hundred and fifty printed pages. It would be on subjects with many of which they were not familiar. Much or all of it would be the driest kind of reading. Then I ask those who think they would read such publication, how many of them after reading it would think their judgment upon the statutes worth anything.

The initiative gives the power to anyone who can induce five per cent. of the electorate to sign his petition, to frame a legislative bill and compel its submission to the electorate and this without amendment or discussion as to form. It is a great burden upon the electors and eliminates all possibility of that wise adaptation to the real public needs that illuminating discussion and reframing so often give to bills when they are passed by Congress or a state legislature.

The business of legislation is an expert matter. It is something that requires a knowledge of the meaning of legal terms. It often requires the taking of evidence in order to determine what the real evil is to be remedied and how much a remedy can be formulated. Legislators even if they are not trained lawyers, acquire excellent judgment as to the merits of bills by reason of their experience and the full opportunity and time they have to study the bills, and from the calm and informing discussion of their details. This is impossible with the general public. It is just as absurd to propose to build a bridge without engineers, to build a house without an architect or a competent contractor as to propose detailed legislation by votes at a popular election. This is



not to impeach the intelligence of the electorate. It is only to recognize the limitations upon men in doing something which under the conditions no degree of intelligence will enable them to do.

The pure Democracy attempted in Athens proved to be a failure and government in those days was so much simpler than in our cities and states that even a temporary success in such a community would not justify a resort to the same method now. The town meeting in our New England States was a form of direct government adopted when the necessities of village and town government were few and when almost anybody could discharge the duties of any office. Yet those Puritan ancestors of ours the moment their villages became three or four in number turned to the representative system. The General Courts of Massachusetts and of Connecticut and of Rhode Island and of all other New England states evidence their conviction that the town meeting system is inapplicable to a community of any considerable size, especially to a community in which the people live in different settlements remote from the seat of government.

The institution of Recall deals with the executive and judicial branches of the government. With both, its operation is injurious to the public service, though in the case of Judges it is much more dangerous.

If an executive officer is dishonest, he can in effect be recalled by impeachment or by criminal trial and conviction and sentence to the penitentiary. Under the new system of recall an honest official before he has had time to work out and vindicate his policies may be ousted by an ambitious rival through misrepresentation in the press and the hasty judgment of the part of the electorate who go to the polls. The necessary tendency of such a system is to prevent his adopting any affirmative policy at all, to discharge his duties in a colorless way, to restrain all energy and enterprise, and to keep him with his ear to the ground to enable him to avoid the doing of anything that shall arouse discussion. It adds greatly to the tyranny of a reckless and unscrupulous press. It necessarily discourages enterprise and originality and real effort for reform because no reform was ever initiated that did not stimulate misrepresentation to obstruct

its successful inauguration. Under such a system Lincoln would have been recalled.

The evil of the recall of judges and judicial decisions is, however, much greater. The tenure of a Judge or the right of the individual litigants is to depend on the chance and uncertainty of one popular election. In the nature of the case, the people cannot be advised of the legal arguments *pro* and *con* even if they could understand them. Again the power of a reckless press would be enhanced and justice and equity would play little part in the result.

The evil tendency of such so-called reforms is in the destruction of the sanctity of our constitution. Under the initiative and referendum, no greater consideration by the people is required in the passage of a constitutional amendment than in that of any temporary and unimportant measure. A bill of rights and an appropriations bill in such a procedure rest upon the same sanction. The success of our popular government, in promoting the happiness of all the people, depends upon the justice and equity with which it reconciles the right and power of the whole people with the rights of minority and of individuals. Such justice and equity has been obtained by the adoption of a written constitution and the interpretation and enforcement of it by an independent judiciary whom the people took pains to surround with every protection against popular passion or congressional or executive restraint. The system of representative government is an institution hammered out in the struggle for liberty by our Anglo-Saxon ancestors for eight hundred years. The system of written constitutions and an independent judiciary has vindicated itself in the strenuous life of the Republic for one hundred and twenty-five years and there is nothing in the actual results of the initiative, referendum and recall that commend them as a substitute.

What is true with respect to the state is true with respect to the party. Parties are essential to popular government. In no other way practically can the will of all the electorate be interpreted and embodied in affirmative action, legislative and executive. The selection of candidates by a party is a matter in which the community may properly take an interest and with respect to which the legislature may properly pass

laws to prevent abuses that have arisen in party government. But the question which I moot is whether the selection of candidates at a general primary has tended to the elimination of corruption or political machine rule and the selection of better representatives of a party. I say without hesitation that it has not. Certainly it has not with respect to the many offices to which it applies, when the persons to be selected are not persons of whose qualification the public can in the nature of things have any intimate knowledge. The standard of judges in those states where the candidates are selected by a general primary has notably and perceptibly become inferior to those who were selected under the old convention system.

The convention system gave rise to abuses. Bosses and machines were able to control the convention, but even under the worst boss and the worst machine the convention was a body with a sense of some responsibility growing out of its desire to nominate a ticket which would win in the election; and therefore while it may have nominated many machine candidates whose selection did not make for the public interest, it frequently nominated men of strength and popularity and high character in order that the ticket might be a vote getting one. Under the system of the general primary there is no such responsibility. Especially is this true in the selection of the subordinate offices. Circumstances of no real or proper significance in the selection of qualified candidates affect the choice in such cases. If the initial letter of the candidate's name comes early in the alphabet, and he is first in the list of candidates, he may receive thousands of votes more than the man whose name begins with W. Anything that gives a man notoriety or conspicuousness in the community, however unimportant in showing his qualifications, attracts votes to him because the voters have no other means of identifying or discriminating between the many candidates. The man who advertises himself most in the newspapers has a great advantage. The general primary in the opportunity which it offers to the use of money in organizing a campaign, expended, not corruptly but merely in giving a publicity to the candidate, greatly increases the power of money. I have known man after man, worthy of party pref-



erence, who has declined to enter a primary contest because of the financial burden that a successful issue imposed.

Nor is it true that the general primary is any less subject to the control of a machine and the boss and a political organization than a convention. Primaries are usually attended by a minority of the party. In other words, the result is much affected by the number who can be aroused to come out to vote and that depends upon organization. This places in the hands of the politicians who have an organization the means to control in ordinary campaigns.

In America we have been greatly influenced by the success that our people have shown in the invention of machines to reduce the amount of labor needed and the cost of production, and we cannot get over the idea that political evils can be remedied by a change in political machinery. I don't mean to say that one form of machinery in politics is not better than another, but I do mean to say that every one will fail, or will suffer in its operation if the electorate do not perform their electoral duties. The representative system in legislatures and in conventions system will work well if the people who ought to vote will turn out, and it will work for the reasons I have stated a great deal better than the initiative and referendum and the general primary. But we should realize under any system the politicians will control, if the people fail in their electoral duties. These so-called reforms and their popularity are a sincere expression of the desire of the people to make short cuts and to avoid the evils of a failure of the people to do their duties. It is a futile policy as experience is showing. We find the so-called bosses still controlling under the general primary, and we find the reformers as bitter against the result of the general primaries when they are defeated as they were against the convention. We may therefore expect a wise reaction from this attempted infusion of "more democracy to cure the evils of present democracy."

Another marked tendency of this generation is the growth of the spirit of universal brotherhood. It has shown itself in the sense of responsibility that rich men who have accumulated great fortunes, have manifested in enormous donations to every variety of philanthropic activity. They have shown this not only by the size of these contributions, but by the

foresight and labor with which they have formulated the provisions and created the instrumentalities for their useful application. But not among the rich alone has this feeling spread. The organization of all sorts of charitable societies and the unselfish activities and devotion of people of moderate or very limited means to help their stumbling brethren and sisters are apparent on every hand. The awakened interest on the part of the many in public matters, the organization of thousands of women's clubs for the discussion of subjects of public interest, and for the promoting of plans for municipal and other kinds of community improvement are manifest to every observer. The churches, too, have minimized doctrinal differences and have united, and stand shoulder to shoulder in a common effort to make the spirit of religion the hand maiden of the moral uplift and the spread of the fraternal spirit. The people have halted in their mad rush for dollars and have become ashamed of their previous absorption in material matters, and are now seeking to show to the unfortunate who have not shared in the general prosperity their interest in them and their desire to help them on.

The same spirit shows itself in the trend of legislation, which has assumed a much more paternal character than that of a quarter of a century ago, when the doctrines of the *laissez faire* school of government seemed to be controlling. It is quite possible that in this enthusiasm many foolish things have been done. A movement of this kind cannot be carried on without developing an hysteria that promotes silly projects; but those are the mere excrescences and excesses in a movement of real progress in humanity that every lover of his kind must welcome. The suggestion that by legislation we can all lift ourselves by the boot straps, can abolish poverty, can distribute fortunes and produce a universal level of happiness is the dream of the socialist. Many schemes of uplift whose authors deny that they are socialists are equally unsound. They are an evidence of this spread of the fraternal feeling, although they promise no practical good and may involve obstruction to real progress in the waste of public activities, in the squandering of public funds and in a useless increase in the burden of taxation.



This new fraternal feeling is not limited by national boundaries. The people of the world are closer to each other. They are taking more interest in each other's welfare. Those of us that dreamed of universal peace have had a dreadful shock in this awful cataclysm that has come to Europe; but even that has developed the world-wide interest in the welfare of peoples, and has shown by the general sympathy with the suffering of all the belligerents, how much more united the peoples of the world are than they ever were before. The vast sums that are being contributed, the many activities that are being carried on among our people to relieve the wounded and starving of all the nations through the Red Cross and other agencies far exceed anything that history has shown in the past, and are as much greater in their extent as this war is greater than any previous war in the history of the world.

The war, the ending of which no man can now see, staggers the imagination in the loss of life and in the destruction of hard-earned capital that its probable long continuance must involve. When it came it was such a shock and such a disappointment that those who hoped for human progress lost their faith. But as it grows to be an older story, and we bring our philosophy to bear on the facts, we find occasion for hope in the very suffering which, when the war is over, will prompt the adoption of some peaceable means of settling international disputes to prevent a recurrence of such an awful catastrophe.

I am an optimist. The differences between a crank and an optimist, it seems to me, is not in their ideals, for an optimist may have as high ideals as a crank, but a crank is a man who believes that his ideals can be realized to-morrow by legislation, and has no interest except in their instant accomplishment. He is not willing to wait the slow growth in the character of the individual, which must be the foundation of all human progress. The optimist believes his ideals are only attainable by indomitable struggle and never-ending patience; but that so much are they to be desired that every effort toward them is life giving, and every real advance, however gradual, is worth while.



## STREET TRAFFIC REGULATION AS IT WAS, IS AND OUGHT TO BE.

BY WILLIAM PHELPS ENO.

Traffic Regulation is a new feature of police work, and has already become its most remunerative duty. Even in its present crude stage of development, the amount of money already saved annually to New York far exceeds the cost of maintenance of the entire Police Department, to say nothing of the saving of life.

Prior to 1903, in American cities, there were no rules for driving known to drivers or police. Vehicles made their way as best they could through an inextricable mass of other vehicles headed in every possible direction, and this when traffic was but a small fraction of what it is to-day.

In January, 1900, in New York City, an attempt was made to have street traffic regulations passed as an ordinance. After nearly four years without result, it was found that the Police Department already had sufficient legal authority for the purpose, and they were thereupon promulgated as "Police Traffic Regulations," under date of October 30, 1903. They originally consisted of about five hundred words. The only changes have been gradual simplifications and such additions as wider experience suggested.

Their operation has been facilitated by the education of both police and public, mainly through the distribution of pocket folders and placards.

These regulations were officially adopted in Paris, July 10, 1912. Following this, London, where traffic was largely regulated by custom and usage, also codified similar regulations. Thus the Police traffic regulations of New York are now practically standard in the greatest capitals of the world.

To regulate this traffic the greatest difficulties encountered in this country have been in gaining the co-operation of police officials.

It has taken years, for instance, to get even two little improperly constructed isles of safety built on Fifth Avenue,

the authorities having claimed that isles of safety are an experiment, while in fact they have been in successful use abroad, especially in England and France, for over forty-five years, and their number is being constantly increased.

Again, at a June meeting of the Mayor's Advisory Traffic Committee, it was recommended that the Police Department expend not exceeding \$2,000 in a trial of "rotary traffic" on Fifth Avenue from Forty-second to Fifty-eighth Streets, inclusive, for six weeks. Traffic stanchions and painted isles of safety were to be used in accordance with the author's explanation at the meeting. There is an ample number of stanchions now placed where they are of no use, and these were to be borrowed and the \$2,000 was ample for the painting.

The Police Department refused, saying they had not the money.

Abroad, in contrast, the officials generally have evidenced a real interest, seemingly anxious to discover if anything were offered that would tend to ameliorate conditions, and having found the recommendations reasonable, adopted them in part immediately, and are now gradually following them quite fully.

In July, 1913, Paris, as a conspicuous example of foreign receptiveness, followed the suggestions I made, even to the scale measurements, on the Champs Elysées, spreading apart the two existing lines of isles of safety, and installing a third line between, thus dividing motor traffic according to direction and making the crossings safe; while the "rotary system," first recommended for Columbus Circle in 1903, and put in operation in 1905, was followed by Paris at the Place de l'Etoile in 1907, and is now in use at every circle in every city in the world where there is any intelligent effort to regulate traffic.

In South America they have done so well that Americans who have been there recently have advised the New York authorities to send a delegation to Buenos Ayres and Rio Janeiro to find out how traffic is handled there, in order to have their system adopted here.

Traffic is quite as much a specialty as detective work, and unless the man in charge has the kind of mind necessary for its comprehension, mistakes are inevitably made.

A notable example of this is the installation of the present abortive system of semaphores on Fifth Avenue and the

trying to enforce the "block system" for a number of squares at a time. Its main feature has already had to be abandoned, each semaphore now being operated independently. The semaphore for independent work, moreover, is not nearly so good as the hand, because the semaphore directs all drivers in sight and thereby unnecessarily delays traffic, while the hand can direct them individually. It had already been proved a failure in other cities with lighter traffic, although it has sometimes worked fairly well where one of the intersecting streets was a "one-way traffic" street.

Although the last set of New York regulations is the best in force so far and is now being revised as a standard for all cities, we need much to perfect our system. Traffic regulations are properly police regulations, and should be adopted as such in order to avoid division of authority and incompetent meddling.

There should be a deputy commissioner in charge of traffic. He should be a man of experience, having no other duties; he should be retained in office as long as he proves himself efficient, and his spare time should be devoted to the study of local traffic problems which are continually presenting themselves for solution or for improvement. Experiments should be made in summer, when the traffic is light.

But one ordinance or other statute should be allowed in any city, making it the duty of the Police Department to regulate traffic.

Police management of traffic costs but little, because the men are not withdrawn from regular police duty, but are so placed by their special assignments as to have an effective supervision of their locality and to be readily found in case of emergency. The duties are "fixed post duty" by men on foot, and "limited patrol duty" by men on horses and cycles.

All policemen should be made to understand that they have general traffic obligations, while recognizing that in addition to these there are special duties requiring trained men—a traffic squad, consisting of men on foot, on horses, on bicycles, and on motor cycles, with activities as follows:—the men on foot should regulate traffic at street intersections; the mounted men should patrol and exercise general supervision. Such a well-trained body of mounted police is essential to every large



city for the management of parades, escort duty, suppression of riots, etc. A mounted traffic squad furnishes this economically because of daily traffic duty.

The men on bicycles and motorcycles should also patrol and exercise general supervision of traffic. They are particularly useful in the less crowded and suburban streets and parks to regulate the speed of automobiles.

Traffic signs should be uniform in shape and colors, and brief in wording. Those for warning and for directing the movement of traffic should have vivid yellow letters or arrows on a black background. Those for designating public "parking" spaces, cab stands, car and bus stops, etc., in cities, and for indicating distance and direction in the country should have the colors reversed. These colors show best in the daytime, and also when illumined at night.

The term "parked" is applied to a waiting vehicle or vehicles drawn up alongside of one another, not parallel to the curb. Vehicles drawn up one directly behind the other in a line are not "parked" but ranked, as usual on a cab stand.

When vehicles are "parked" any one of them can move out without causing any other to move. When "ranked" they cannot do so unless considerable waste space is left between them.

Where streets are of sufficient width to allow vehicles to be "parked" at the sidewalk, many more can be accommodated at the curb than when they are "ranked." Streets, if wide enough, can also have cabs and other waiting vehicles "parked" instead of "ranked" in the center, which, of course, is a tremendous advantage in keeping the curbs clear.

When vehicles are "parked" at the curb or in the center of the street they should not be at right angles to the curb, but at an acute angle, as they take less room that way.

Public parking spaces should be designated by lines in or on the pavement and by signs.

A plan for the regulation of vehicles at theatres was put in operation at the Metropolitan Opera House on November 25, 1903, and proved an immediate success, having reduced the wait from an hour and a half to less than thirty minutes, and this on the first night of its trial.

This was probably the first plan ever made for the handling of traffic at large gatherings, and it has served since as a model. No new principles have been advanced since and only minor changes made.

"One way traffic" was put in force in a few streets in New York in the spring of 1908; in Boston in the autumn of the same year; in Paris in 1909, where it has since been greatly extended, and in Buenos Ayres in 1910. It is now used in many cities throughout the world. "Rotary traffic" at large circles is one example of it.

All streets in congested sections not wide enough for three vehicles should have "one way traffic," and all those not wide enough for four vehicles should have it at least during the busy hours.

Where two streets are practically parallel and near together it has been very successful. In Paris and elsewhere it has solved many problems which formerly seemed hopeless.

It is, however, stupidly uneconomical to adopt "one way traffic" and not to provide abundant signs indicating the direction of the movement. A sign costs about \$1.50, and a policeman at least twice that per day.

It is perhaps hardly necessary to explain that the English "block system" means the stopping and starting of vehicles alternately at the intersection of streets in order that traffic may proceed through each in turn. It was introduced in New York in 1903.

The objection to it is that it halts traffic. Vehicles accumulate, and when the block is raised go through in a mass. The sidewalks also are congested by pedestrians waiting for traffic to be reversed. By the "rotary" or "gyratory traffic system" is meant that rule by which vehicles are made to "Keep to the Right from Entrance to Exit." Formerly at circles, where several streets converged, traffic went around in both directions, resulting in confusion and accidents. The "rotary system," as I have explained, was adopted in 1905 at Columbus Circle, New York, all traffic being obliged to follow the circle.

Isles of safety provide refuges for pedestrians in crossing crowded streets. They also relieve congestion on sidewalks and divide or canalize traffic, bringing about vehicular order.

## THE CASE OF THE AUTOMATIC DRAMA.

BY OTIS SKINNER.

In the world of things theatrical, the motion picture has become more than an institution, it has become an epidemic. The contagion has spread until there is scarcely a village of the smallest population in this country that has not its "movie" theatre. The motion picture might be termed the Ford of the drama, but for the obvious libel of a sterling vehicle that gets us to our destination with the speed and comfort of a Packard, whereas, in so far as concrete art goes, the "movie" as drama gets us nowhere. It is, at its best, sublimated photography—a shadow of the real thing, in fact, the reel thing.

Much has been accomplished in motion photography, some of its achievements have been little short of marvellous and will never cease to prove interesting. No one need grudge the triumph of the man who put speed into the camera. He has found the means of bridging many dull hours and bringing amusement to the multitude. The nickel theatre has become the poor man's dissipation. For a dime or two he can pass a long evening watching pictured plots, hairbreadth escapes and Chaplin capers, through photographic wizardry.

Small wonder, then, if the inventors of this form of amusement are now dreaming dreams and seeing the dramatic output of the world brought within the focus of a lens.

So great are the attractions of this species of entertainment that millions of capital have been drawn to the business of projecting the film drama upon the stages of the regular theatres, and shares of the various film companies are dealt in upon the floors of stock exchanges throughout the country.

Granting the whirlwind success of the enterprise, what has it accomplished in the exhibition of art, of personality, of emotional appeal? Nothing more than a talking machine that distorts and falsifies Caruso's voice, a photograph of Niagara Falls that gives us the cataract without its thrill or majesty, or the song of the nightingale as it is brought to our ears by a Columbia record.



The crux of the whole matter lies in the fact that in the most colossally conceived, and elaborately staged picture play, we witness the operation of a machine. It is this factor that will always stand in the way of the substitution of screen projection for the acted drama of the first-class theatre.

In making the comparison between the machine drama and the acted play, I am, of course, taking the two in their highest forms, bringing the best of the Griffith, Fox, Selig, Lasky or Vitagraph films, as well as those of European manufacture, into the light of the plays of Pinero, Thomas, Jones, Belasco, Selwyn, Broadhurst and scores of other writers, when acted by the representative men and women of our stage.

It is unnecessary to contrast the pantomimic pranks of Charlie Chaplin with our popular acted farces—or the lurid mob scenes, conflagrations, rows, ructions, explosions and railroad smash-ups of the films, with the attractions of "On Trial," "Sinners," "The Deep Purple," etc., etc., as presented by real actors. These contestants must settle their claims before the judgments of those to whom they appeal; they need not concern us, for, if sheer diversion is sought and intellectual oblivion be the end of the theatre-goer's desire, as much of banality and the commonplace can be found in the offerings of the two dollar houses as in the ten cent movies. I am too wise to pose in these matters, and if I said I never find myself in a movie mood—which sees diversion in the crazy acrobatics of Chaplin, or the slapstick grotesqueries of the knock-about freaks of the film, no one would believe me; but then I have not been guiltless of idling in front of a street Punch and Judy show, and I have frequently picked up the Mutt & Jeff page or the comic supplement of the Sunday newspaper. Many patrons of the regular theatre have only Mutt & Jeff appetites for the play. Some years ago, during a run of Boker's tragedy of Francesca da Rimini that I gave in New York, an after dinner box party entered the theatre thinking to see a comic opera. I know those men and women suffered, and I did not blame them when they left at the end of the second act.

Were it not for the claims of the promoters of the most serious-minded form of picture drama to a place among the producers of the best of the acted plays, it would seem that

there could be no argument of our subject. But these gentlemen have, during the past season, leased many of the regular theatres in New York and other cities, and are to-day offering their wares at the price of admission charged for the best acted legitimate drama. The movie has thrown down the gauntlet. In a single instance it has won. "The Birth of a Nation" has proved as irresistible an attraction in all the great cities as anything the legitimate stage has to offer. Perhaps this photographic feat may be repeated, but it is to be doubted. "The Birth of a Nation" is many different kinds of an entertainment; besides its drama side, it presents features of the circus, the pageant, the panorama, and it lays claim, loudly disputed by many people, to being a lesson in history. In addition to these features it has profited by much sensational advertising of its rather questionable scenes, and its appeal to mob spirit and race prejudice. In some cities injunctions have been brought and efforts made to suppress its representation on the ground of protection of public morals. Nothing can work more effectually for popular success than notoriety of this kind.

The more recent attempts to sell to the public the drama of the film at regular prices have not succeeded. Enormous sums have been expended in the preparation of these plays—fabulous salaries have been paid to skilled actors for their services, not a detail possible to the art and science of the camera has been neglected, but the result does not satisfy. Something is missing. It is the human presence—the human voice—the human feeling—the personal magnetism that makes the acted drama the most vital and appealing of all the arts. Disguise it as we may, the screen play is the operation of a machine.

The enterprise of the various motion picture managers in procuring the services of noted actors for their plays has confused the issue somewhat in the minds of the public, and the attraction of the pictured appearance of a popular favorite has gone far to justify the huge salaries paid to actors of repute.

I do not attempt to judge of the effect of this commercialism upon the popularity or drawing power of our various stars who have been caught by the lure of the dollar; that is

a disputed question, and the answer cannot be truly given until time has made its test. But it is an unquestioned fact that the best actors do not shine upon the screen. Our most accomplished artists have made but meagre showing before the camera. Their acting is not a whit more effective than that of the screen specialists who, outside the world of films, have scant standing or attraction as artists. In most instances the film star is chosen for the advantages of his or her appearance. Face and figure have far greater possibilities for the movie director than has dramatic genius. Indeed, the genius of the fine actor meets a serious handicap when he confronts the picture machine. His most potent effects are stultified, his voice is unheard, and that collaboration of player and audience, which contains the very essence of acting, is forever banished.

The prophets of picturedom tell us that their art is but in its infancy. I am willing to concede this. Inventive wonders never cease, and the ingenuity of the directors of motion picture plays is constantly seeking higher levels of expression. But granting the most miraculous advance in the smoothness and illusion of the automatic drama, it must always lack the human equation and can never dispute the supremacy of true dramatic art or inflict upon it a permanent injury.



## MAKERS OF THE FLAG.

BY FRANKLIN K. LANE,  
SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

An address delivered by Mr. Lane before the employees of the Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., on Flag Day, 1914.

This morning, as I passed into the Land Office, The Flag dropped me a most cordial salutation, and from its rippling folds I heard it say: "Good morning, Mr. Flag Maker."

"I beg your pardon, Old Glory," I said, "aren't you mistaken? I am not the President of the United States, nor a member of Congress, nor even a general in the army. I am only a Government clerk."

"I greet you again, Mr. Flag Maker," replied the gay voice, "I know you well. You are the man who worked in the sweater of yesterday straightening out the tangle of that farmer's homestead in Idaho, or perhaps you found the mistake in that Indian contract in Oklahoma, or helped to clear that patent for the hopeful inventor in New York, or pushed the opening of that new ditch in Colorado, or made that mine in Illinois more safe, or brought relief to the old soldier in Wyoming. No matter; whichever one of these beneficent individuals you may happen to be, I give you greeting, Mr. Flag Maker."

I was about to pass on, when The Flag stopped me with these words:

"Yesterday the President spoke a word that made happier the future of ten million peons in Mexico; but that act looms no larger on the flag than the struggle which the boy in Georgia is making to win the Corn Club prize this summer.

"Yesterday the Congress spoke a word which will open the door of Alaska; but a mother in Michigan worked from sunrise until far into the night to give her boy an education. She, too, is making the flag.

"Yesterday we made a new law to prevent financial panics, and yesterday, maybe, a school teacher in Ohio taught his first letters to a boy who will one day write a song that will give cheer to the millions of our race. We are all making the flag."

"But," I said, impatiently, "these people were only working!"

Then came a great shout from The Flag:

"The work that we do is the making of the flag.

"I am not the flag; not at all. I am but its shadow.

"I am whatever you make me, nothing more.

"I am your belief in yourself, your dream of what a People may become.

"I live a changing life, a life of moods and passions, of heart breaks and tired muscles.

"Sometimes I am strong with pride, when men do an honest work, fitting the rails together truly.

"Sometimes I droop, for then purpose has gone from me, and cynically I play the coward.

"Sometimes I am loud, garish, and full of that ego that blasts judgment.

"But always, I am all that you hope to be, and have the courage to try for.

"I am song and fear, struggle and panic, and ennobling hope.

"I am the day's work of the weakest man, and the largest dream of the most daring.

"I am the Constitution and the courts, statutes and the statute makers, soldiers and dreadnaught, drayman and street sweep, cook, counselor, and clerk.

"I am the battle of yesterday, and the mistake of tomorrow.

"I am the mystery of the men who do without knowing why.

"I am the clutch of an idea, and the reasoned purpose of resolution.

"I am no more than what you believe me to be and I am all that you believe I can be.

"I am what you make me, nothing more.

"I swing before your eyes as a bright gleam of color, a symbol of yourself, the pictured suggestion of that big thing which makes this nation. My stars and my stripes are your dream and your labors. They are bright with cheer, brilliant with courage, firm with faith, because you have made them so out of your hearts. For you are the makers of the flag and it is well that you glory in the making."

## SOME NOTES ON THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF THE INDIANS OF GUATEMALA AND MEXICO.

BY THOMAS ROBINSON DAWLEY, JR.

At this time, when Mexico is painfully present in our minds—and many of us believe that her troubles are caused by the uprising of an oppressed people struggling for the liberty granted them by their Constitutional law—it may not be amiss while calling attention to the various elements comprising the Mexican people to present a few notes upon the political, social, and economic conditions of some of those who racially are in the vast majority, as well as of those of Guatemala, who ethnologically may be placed in the same group.

Although the Mexican Government under the enlightened administration of Porfirio Diaz made several attempts to take a census of Mexico, it confessed its inability to present statistics which could be accepted as reliable. An estimate, however, based upon those that were gathered, placed the total population at fifteen million. Of this, nineteen per cent. was classified as purely white descent; forty-three per cent. as *mestizo*, or mixed, and the remaining thirty-eight per cent. as pure blooded Indians. Thus we have in Mexico fully six million Indians, and these Indians constitute many tribes in various stages of civilization, from the semi-savage cave dweller to the highly civilized Zapotec of Oaxaca, or the Maya of Yucatan. Dr. Orozco y Berra, under the Empire of Maximilian, made a classification of these Indians, and divided them, according to their languages, into eleven families speaking thirty-five distinct tongues and sixty-nine dialects, finally adding sixteen more tongues which he was unable to classify. Dr. Antony Peñafiel has since found that the indigenous languages still spoken in the whole extent of the Republic now number fifty-five.

At the time of the conquest, beyond the realm of the Aztecs to the north, that vast territory was more or less peo-



pled by many barbaric races or tribes, varying in their social state from the naked, bestial savages of Lower California to the primitive but warlike Otomies and Chichimecs on the border of the Aztec Empire, where it has developed its highest state of barbaric culture. It is a pretty well accepted historical fact that the Aztecs, a wandering, warlike tribe from the north, grafted their savage rites upon the civilization of a people inhabiting the valley of Mexico, but that there existed any such high state of civilization as that attributed to the traditional Toltecs has been doubted generally by our historians. As I have lived and associated with some of the tribes of Guatemala, and made careful observations of them, I personally believe that such a people as the Toltecs are described to have been, did exist.

However, for the purpose of this Journal, I desire to point out that there still exist in both Mexico and Guatemala numerous Indian pueblos, who practice many of their ancient rites and customs without interference on the part of the central governments supposed to rule over them. There are pueblos in both countries, where the white man or the native *mestizo* is not allowed to abide, and although some of their institutions were founded by the early Christian missionaries and remain intact, the people govern themselves according to their own traditional laws, and the law of common sense as they see it. Mr. Lumholtz, in his "Unknown Mexico," tells us how the captain in the pueblo of Lajas is on duty day and night, watching that nothing may happen to man, beast or property, and that the one trail running through the place is swept every afternoon, and carefully examined on the following morning to ascertain whether any one has gone through the town. He gives credit to the Porfirio Diaz government for trying to protect these aboriginal tribes from Mexicans who cheat and rob, and from encroachments by avaricious settlers. He describes at length the system of government at Lajas, the officers being elected by the people every year, and required to meet in session almost every day to settle the affairs of the people who elect them. He also tells the story of a teacher sent by the Mexican authorities to open a school at Lajas, who on his arrival was met at the old curato by one hundred and forty children, none of whom

had ever seen a Mexican before or understood a word of Spanish. The children soon returned home, and within five days the teacher was left without a pupil. He succeeded, however, in getting five children who remained with him for six months. At the end of that time they could read and write their own names.

Frequently I have asked Indians with whom I associated why they did not want to send their children to the government schools, and have as often been told that schooling, such as the government gave, made of a good Indian a bad one. On the other hand, I have seen an old gray-haired Indian gather his people into a Spanish church that had been abandoned by its former priests and give them instruction handed down by his forefathers. I have asked the Indian carrying my hundred pounds of freight upon his back over a mountain trail why he gave his little son a load to carry also, and his reply has been: "Because it will make him strong, Señor, and when he grows to be a man it will not be hard for him to carry a big load."

Without entering on a discussion here as to whether the Aztecs in their barbaric splendor sacrificed the lives of their victims on the altars of their war gods to the extent represented by their Spanish conquerors, the fact remains that as the social state of the northern barbarian seems to have advanced with his march southward, so does it seem that the Indian of Central Mexico developed a higher state of civilization with his distance from the Aztec Empire, until we come to the highly civilized tribes of the Guatemala table lands. Here are many pueblos of Indians virtually maintaining little republics of their own, and truly more republican in their government than the military autocracy under which they live.

The population of Guatemala is approximately one and a half million souls. Of this population one million are pure blooded Indians, thus outnumbering the creole population two to one. Were these Indians united, were they warlike, or were they even clever politicians, they long since would have possessed themselves of the central government and administered the affairs of the country to their own advantage. That they do not lack in intelligence and administra-

tive ability is shown by their diversified industries, their many instances of practical views on economics, and their honest and loyal administration of their municipal affairs in those communities where they still preserve their ancient rights of self-government. But, like the Chinese, whom they resemble in many respects, they are for peace at any price. I have seen more than a thousand of them gathered up from their mountain homes, and with no other force than a corporal's guard of ragged, bare-footed soldiers, taken down to the unhealthy tropic lands of the coast, many of them leaving their bones to be buried by the wayside, to transport government rifles and ammunition upon their backs without even a word of protest. With those very arms and ammunition in their possession, as an officer of the line said to me at the time, they could easily start a rebellion against the military oligarchy to which they are subjected.

Although these Indians are in complete subjugation to the domineering Spanish-American minority, for four centuries they have persistently refused to speak the language of their conquerors. No matter how well they may speak it, as a rule they ignore all knowledge of it. In travelling through parts of their country, I have found them cold, irresponsive, stupid. They refused me food—a drink of water, and refused even to direct me on my way. But let me make my wants known in a few words of their language which I possessed, and they would at once become responsive and assist me. On a coffee plantation during a visit, as the result of a controversy between a creole and one of the Indians, the creole, believing the Indian did not understand Spanish, told an elaborate story to the proprietor of what the Indian had done. The Indian waited patiently until the creole had finished his tale, whereupon he exclaimed, in perfectly good Spanish:

“All that is a big lie, Patron!”

The proprietor himself was so surprised at the Indian's knowledge of Spanish that, turning to me, he said: “Why, I have known that Indian for years and never knew that he understood a word of Spanish.”

There are eighteen different languages spoken by the different Indian *pueblos* or peoples in Guatemala. Sixteen of them are said to have the same racial affinity. While I do



not profess to be an authority on this point, I do know that the Indians who speak Kekchi profess not to know Maya, which ethnologists claim is the parent tongue, nor do they profess to know the Pókonchi, spoken on the other side of their mountain range, only four leagues away, and which language is said also to be one of the linguistic branches of the great Maya.

The diversified industries, habits and dress of these peoples are more interesting to the layman than their languages. The Kekchi, for example, dress in home-spun cotton, dyed and woven in their aboriginal patterns live in neatly constructed and kept thatched houses scattered out through their mountain territory, and they are strictly an agricultural people, making their living almost entirely by farming. They are a mild, gentle race, abstemious, frugal, and exceedingly neat and clean, both in their personal attire and in their homes. A dirty, ragged Indian among them is such a rarity I cannot now remember ever having seen one, and I have had hundreds of them in my employ. While with them, and observing their social and religious customs, it seemed to me that they possessed all the attributes of the traditional Toltecs. They decorate their altars and shrines with a profusion of fruits and flowers, and show their love for the flowers by growing them around their homes. When their crops are harvested they give thanks to the Creator of All, by bringing the biggest ears of corn, and the biggest pumpkins, to their churches and hermitages, and they decorate the walls of the same with the tallest corn stalks, leaves and gourd-like fruits. They celebrate their religious feasts with music and dancing, but they never sing. At these feasts they are given great bowls of pork or game, stewed in hot pepper or chili, and gourds of *chichi* are passed around to wash down the hot broth, the elders who supervise these feasts watching with a vigilant eye lest the younger men get too much of the *chichi*. As soon as there are any indications that enough of the mild intoxicant has been imbibed, then for a while at least, there is "no more."

These Indians eat very little meat, even at their feasts, and what is left in their bowls they carry home with them to be eaten some other time. At one of their feasts, after I had

heroically drank the hot liquid in which the meat was cooked, one of the elders carefully wrapped up the meat in a banana leaf for me to take home. That such mild, gentle people as these, who turn their heads away at the sight of blood, ever sacrificed human beings to their gods seems beyond all probability. And I may add, in conclusion, that I never saw among them such a low social state, immoral conditions and criminal tendencies, as I have seen in sections of this country among my own race of people.

The Indians known as those of the Altos, the high table lands bordering nearer Mexico, have their centers of population in villages. Some of these devote themselves almost entirely to manufacturing, while others profess to be merchants devoting themselves almost exclusively to trading. Others are exclusively a pastoral people, while others again pursue farming as their means of subsistence, often terracing their steep mountain sides into little gardens and fields. For example, the Indians of one village may devote themselves to making pots or a certain kind of pottery. Another is known for its particular weave of blankets or woolen cloth, while some other may have diversified industries, such as brick making, candle and soap making, weaving and wood working. The merchants are those who devote themselves to selling the manufactured articles of their town, or exchanging them for the products of some far distant town or community. They carry their merchandise upon their backs, often going in companies of a dozen individuals under the leadership of a chief of some sort, probably one of their own number elected as such.

The Licenciado Carlos Lemarle, in his *Descriptive Geography of Guatemala*, mentions the people of Jumay in the Department of Totonicapán, as devoting themselves almost exclusively to the work of transporting back loads of freight over the mountains for hire, while those of Jumaytepeque, a much less numerous population, have no industry whatever beyond that of planting a little wheat and corn for their own requirements. He describes the people of Ipala as a pastoral people, very poor and indifferent to social progress. He says they are very poor because they will not sell their cattle, and are not sociable because of their isolation.



The Indians of the hot or warmer zones bordering Honduras are much less conservative than those of the Altos. Here the majority of them speak Spanish, while some have lost all knowledge of their aboriginal dialects, and have adopted the creole dress of the peasant class. Those of Jocatan appear to have preserved many of their ancient customs, and while they all speak Spanish, they speak Chortí, their native tongue, by preference. There are still some pueblos of the Xuícas in the region of the Rio Esclavos, who speak that tongue, but they use it only among themselves.

While the military law of Guatemala does not exempt the Indian population from conscription, no government has ever succeeded in recruiting its army from the Indian population of the high table lands. Drafted into the army and given a gun, they will handle it like a broom or a hoe, and misinterpret every word of command given them regardless of the blows that may be showered upon their heads by a remorseless drill sergeant, until in despair he reports them as "mere brutes" who do not understand anything. Given a final kick, they are dispatched to their homes. Instead of resenting the kick their sense of humor is excited, and as soon as they are out of their tormentor's sight they laugh.

These Indians by some process known only to themselves, for they are unable to read or write, elect their own alcaldes, town councils or whatever else may belong to their city or communal form of government. In the municipal administration of the cities, towns and villages of both Guatemala and Mexico, as well as in all the Spanish-American cities of the New World, according to the law as it is written, the people have complete autonomy. But examples of this complete autonomy are exceptional, the exceptions being in those towns or districts the population of which is exclusively Indian, and there is no garrison of soldiers and military commandante to interfere with their ancient rights and privileges. In many such towns, having jurisdiction over a considerable extent of territory, the Indians maintain virtually little republics of their own, sometimes paying the central government tribute to be let alone. All controversies occurring among them, breaches of the peace or violations of their moral code, are submitted to trial before their alcaldes. In the small villages or *aldeas*



the authority of the *alcalde* is almost supreme, but as he is elected by his fellow-citizens and receives no other emolument for his services than the honor conferred upon him by the office, his decisions are based upon justice as he sees it. In some of the more populous communities the decisions of the *alcaldes* are based upon the opinion of a *Junta*, or council, made up of the oldest and wisest men of the tribe. In some of these communities all judicial and legislative procedure is at night, probably the outcome of the officials having to pursue their daily vocations as the means of subsistence, for they also serve the fellow-citizens without pay. Thus, while these aboriginal Indians maintain their own municipal governments, the part they play in the political affairs of the country as a whole is negligible. It may be nothing out of the ordinary for some little military chief in red trousers and gold lace, with half a dozen soldiers under his command, to descend upon one of the Indian *pueblos* and scatter its municipal government and *alcaldes* to the four winds, to be re-formed again immediately upon his departure.

## THE BROOKLYN BOTANIC GARDEN.

BY C. STUART GAGER, PH.D.,  
FIRST DIRECTOR OF THE GARDEN.

The botanic garden idea has spread with marvellous slowness among American cities, notwithstanding the fact that nearly every large city, and many smaller ones, in Europe and other countries, have had such gardens for a century or more. A botanic garden is more than a park; it is an educational institution. The purpose of a botanic garden is the advancement and diffusion of a knowledge and love of plants, and the establishment and support of such an institution is specially important in large centres of population, where many residents, both children and adults, have little or no opportunity of becoming acquainted with the native wild flowers, nor with exotic plants of economic importance and closely related to our daily lives. Botanic gardens are of particular value as adjuncts to the instruction in nature study, botany, and geography in local schools.

Prior to 1895 there was only one botanic garden of any size in any American city, namely, the Missouri Botanical Garden, locally known as "Shaw's Garden," at St. Louis. In 1895 the New York Botanical Garden was established, and has just celebrated (September 6-11, 1915) the twentieth anniversary of its founding.

In 1908 a second botanic garden was established in Greater New York, in the Borough of Brooklyn, under the auspices of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, co-operating with the municipality.

The garden has an area of nearly fifty acres, located approximately at the centre of population of what will soon become the most populous borough of the city. There are now in process of erection a one-story and basement laboratory and instruction building, 250 feet by 74 feet over all, and plant houses covering an area 250 feet long by 100 feet wide. The library has a nucleus of over 3,500 volumes, and a still larger number of pamphlets, all bearing on the study of plants, and

receives over 150 current periodicals devoted to botany or closely allied subjects. The scientific staff now numbers 13. A total of \$270,000 of Corporate Stock of the City of New York has been appropriated for buildings and other permanent improvements, and over \$115,000 of private funds have been provided by the trustees for the same purpose. The budget for maintenance for 1915 was over \$37,000, and private funds were contributed for maintenance for 1914 to the amount of nearly \$12,000. The assessed valuation of the property is approximately \$3,000,000. Special privileges are granted to members. It is hoped that the present endowment of \$75,500 may soon be greatly increased.

Of special popular interest are the Japanese garden (the finest example of its kind to be found in any public park in America), and a native wild flower garden, containing over 1,000 species that grow wild within a radius of 100 miles of New York City. The Garden publishes several periodicals of a scientific and popular nature, including the *American Journal of Botany*, the official organ of the Botanical Society of America.

Special emphasis has been laid by the Brooklyn Garden on work for children, and on co-operation with the local schools, both public and private. The attendance at classes (largely for children) averaged nearly 1,500 a month during the summer of 1915; 266 class exercises and lectures were given at the Garden with a total attendance of over 7,000, and talks were given at over 53 schools of the borough with a total of over 10,000 children as auditors. In April, 1915, over 80,000 penny packets of seeds were distributed to the children of the borough, and nearly 400 children's gardens at homes and schools were visited. At the second annual children's garden exhibit, held at the Botanic Garden, September 24-25, 1915, nearly 2,000 children of 15 years of age or younger exhibited flowers and vegetables raised by themselves at their own homes or schools, and largely with seed supplied by the penny packets distributed the preceding spring by the Botanic Garden. The demands for this work are almost twice as great as the ability of the Garden to handle it. The motto of the Garden is, "For the advancement of botany and the service of the city."



## THE CITY AND THE FLAG.

BY JOHN H. FINLEY, LL.D.

The following address was delivered by Mr. Finley at the exercises in celebration of the adoption of the new official city flag and the Celebration of the Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Installation of the First Mayor and Board of Aldermen of the City of New York in the Aldermanic Chamber, City Hall, New York City, June 24, 1915:—

It is a rare honor and privilege for one who has known the lonesomeness of the furrows, the nearness of the skies, the allurements of the open road, the silences and distances of the prairies, the procession of the seasons, (with no attendant music save of frogs and birds and lowing cattle), to be asked to speak unofficially for those who love the city—*this* city, who received me an utter stranger, gave me her noblest friendships and at last entrusted to me her highest care, the tuition of her sons. Yet dear is she to me, and to millions of alien birth or parentage, as ever she can be, even to those whose first dim memories are of her face and her voice.

Eternally young she is. "*Novi Belgii*" New Belgium, was inscribed upon her first shield. *New* Amsterdam was her first corporate name. *New* York she became. And a *new* city she is always to be, not in name alone, but in that youth which will endure, so long as the fresh water runs from the hills to her lips, and the brine of the ocean washes her feet.

But she is *old* with the memories of all the cities that have been since hunters and shepherds, tired of the terror of the fields or forests, or longing for human companionship, huddled themselves behind walls, on the edge of the meadows or by living waters, became citizens, instead of wanderers, and began to be civilized social beings, (for "civilization" and "city" have the same etymological origin). The pre-Noachian cities, swept away by the flood and forgotten of name; Sodom and Gomorrah, burned with fire and brimstone; Jerusalem, whose exiled children wept beneath the

willows of Babylon; Babylon, who saw her own fate written on the walls of a banquet hall; Thebes and Karnak, buried in the sands; the courts of Pharaoh, kept by lion and lizard; ancient Athens, whose myriad mouths are choked with dust—these all, from Zoar, the little city, to Nineveh, the great city, which now “crouches in time’s corner unrenowned,” though famed for a day—these all are remembered in the heart of this *new* city of the *New* World, who in these memories is as old as the oldest city in the Old World.

Forever *young*, forever *old*, the soul of the generic city dwells in her. Cities have sprung up on hillside, shore and plain, blossomed for a time, drooped, withered, died, slept in their own dust; preachers since Jonah have cried against them, poets since David have sung enticingly of the green pastures and the still waters, reformers have come out of the wilderness since the days of John the Baptist calling to repentance and to baptism in streams outside the city. Still *the* generic city has persisted, rising often from its own ashes or climbing upon the ruins of its own towers, surviving rapine, famine, pestilence and every ill of human association, human passion and human ambition, and receiving into mansion and tenement those driven of some “divine, if obscure” instinct, some “irresistible urge”—as it has been called by that noble American, one time mayor (Brand Whitlock), who has lately saved from devastation the capital city of the Belgium that was of old when this *new* Belgium was but an uninhabited island—has persisted to make here new attempt to solve the time-old problem of civilization, the problem whose solution is “the hope of democracy.”

And the children of every nation under the sun are assembled here to solve it. It is a city predominantly of aliens, of migrants, even as was the celestial city of ultimate happiness which John of Patmos saw in his vision. Like that city, it, too, has foundations that are not of one stone; nor of concrete, but of material from many quarries; sapphire and beryl, topaz and amethyst. And into it, as into that imagined ultimate-city, the glory of the nations is brought; imports of glory, in art and letters and music, and handicraft; immigrants who bear glorious gifts in the strength of their backs and arms and legs, in their industry, in their devotion to



family, in their reverence for ancestors, in their zeal for learning, in their aspirations for free, independent citizenship in a world city; immigrants or near-immigrants who bear lasting glory in their names as variant in origin as St. Gaudens, Schurz, Pupin, Carnegie, Riis, Wald, Goethals, LaFarge, Straus, and Karl Bitter.

In the council of her Aldermen sit, from time to time, men representing the people of Moses and David, Caesar and Justinian, Montesquieu, William of Orange, Wallace, Pitt, Plato, Bismarck and Machiavelli. And that council is even now presided over by one whose first ancestor I have etymological reason to suspect was he whose name was given to the first scriptural city, Chanoah or Enoch; while in the chief magistracy and comptrollership, and in this same council, sit indomitable, but unagreeing, Celts, descendants of a "nation without a flag."

But what has been laid is only the foundation; of which, (we recite with pride) the chief corner-stone, the nether-stone, was supplied by the Netherlands. If we who are alien seem too presuming in our possessing affection, let it be remembered that we but build on the unyielding Dutch and Saxon nethermost foundations. And the structure that rises dimly toward the skies, and in barest outline, is the framework on whose peak the builder fastens (from immemorial custom) a green branch of tree, or a bit of a flag, to tell the world below that some day the thing of his dreams and designs will rise to that height.

Varied indeed of foundation has this city been; but of one substance (again as the celestial city) will it rise—for with nearly a million young and old in the schools, all learning one tongue, trying to forget Old World hates and to form New World loves, the material must be transmuted with all its variant texture and elemental constituents, into one citizenry, be it jasper or amethyst or some stone never yet found in the urban quarries of the past.

Two hundred and fifty years! Not of conscious, purposeful gathering, but of mere growing, the growing of a child or youth, passionate, dreamful, forgetting quickly, planning intermittently, working feverishly, playing boisterously.



To-day even if she does not put away all her childish things, she ascends with her banner to sit among the renowned cities of her time. Most of them have blood upon their robes and grief in their hearts and tears in their eyes. She must seem to them as yet unknowing, indiscriminately trustful, light-hearted as one upon whom no great sorrow has come, inarticulate in world speech, distraught by her sympathies, uncertain of her own mind, specifically improvident for the future, save in some few hoarded treasures (her schools, her colleges, her museums). And yet withal there is a mysterious light in her face, (however garish or sloven at times her dress and manner) that gives her irresistible charm even to one who has looked with youthful or inherited love upon a Florence, a Paris or an Edinburgh.

I have almost wished that her three islands, Manhattan, Long and Staten (leaving Ellis to New Jersey), might take on her population, sever the cables and tunnels and bridges which moor them to the mainland, and put to sea, that she might in the solitude of the ocean come to a civic consciousness, meditate upon the future, and deliberately plan for the mature city, which in turn is to be the greatest communing place, the microcosm of the world.

But it is in no such home rule Atlantis, physical or political, I am bold to say, that she is to find herself. She needs the nourishing continent; and the continent, and particularly that strip of State by which she reaches inland four hundred miles, needs her. She needs the State and continent to give her vigor of the earlier American stocks and remembrance of their ideals. The State and continent need her to carry themselves into commerce with the highest expression of the world's spirit and skill. For she is to be not merely a world city; she is to be an American city—a *New York City*. (The blue in her flag is the blue of the State flag).

When in that march of the battalion from Marseilles to Paris, made memorable in later time by the "Reds of the Midi" of Felix Gras, the soldiers heard a dull humming roar or buzzing murmur as of bees swarming or of an earthquake, or of the sea beating on the rocks, they were told by their commandant that the noise was neither swarm, nor earthquake, nor waterfall, nor breaker, nor the roar of an army,

but the voice of the city toward which they were marching. It is *that* voice which I have heard again and again from the heights above this city; the sound of hammers on anvils, or on steel beams, the rumbling of the cars, the whirring of machines, the swish of the motors, the clang of the gongs, the "jumble of songs and cries and sobs and laughter," from which for a moment now and then rises some strong, clear, single, stirring word (as when President Wilson spoke a few days ago of the "brooding ships" in the North River), or shout of joy (as when some great national game has been won), or piercing wail (as when the Titanic went down, or as when Euripides' Hecuba on the city's heights cried across the centuries against the fates of war).

And what the sound of the great city is to those who can hear, this flag is to those who can see; the symbol of the city's collective ideality, a banner flying over civilization's outposts whence daily sally is made for spiritual conquest; an ensign in the hand of a single courageous scout, a lamp in the hand of a scholar or over the desk of the public accountant; a signal lighted by a watchful health officer, an oriflamme above the teacher—a guiding pillar of blue cloud by day, a pillar of the orange glow that hangs over the city by night; a pillar of the white incense of those who pray with their labor, day and night.

With this oath, such as the Athenian youth entered upon the duties of citizenship, (an oath rewritten by the sons of this city) would I salute this new flag for all who live and are to live within this city:

I will not disgrace these arms which it carries in its white field; nor desert the comrade who is placed by my side or those who cared for me in childhood. I will fight for things sacred, things beautiful and things economical. I will remember those who established this city. I will hand on my city greater and better than I found it. I will hearken to magistrates and obey existing laws and those established by the people. I will not consent unto any that destroys or disobeys the Constitution, but will prevent him whether alone or with others. I will honor the temples and religion, So help me God, who didst save an ancient city, because of her children.

## THE YEAR'S WORK IN LABRADOR.

BY WILFRED T. GRENFELL, M.D., C.N.G.

The following article from Dr. Wilfred T. Grenfell, written on *S. S. Strathcona*, September 25, 1915, is perhaps somewhat informal for a publication like the *Journal*; but it is for that reason more interesting as showing close at hand the work of a member of the Institute who has been for years past building a community from the foundation and for whom the distinction between what is secular and what is religious does not exist.

The work of this Association has been prosecuted as vigorously as the shadow of the war permitted. Its chain of five hospitals, each about two hundred miles apart, has been aided by the interposition of three minor stations, where a resident trained nurse is stationed or a doctor during the summer months, when the southern fleet of schooners is on our coast. The summer visit of specialists in eye work, gynaecological, orthopaedic and dental work has again given our surgeons the advantage of consultations in different cases, and the personal familiarity with the newest methods of treatment adopted in the States. A new hospital further south is about to be added to the chain on the same lines as the last, viz: that the entire financial burden shall be borne locally with the assistance of a government grant—the co-operation of the Executive and management already established and now working very efficiently being afforded them free. The staff in this way is very materially benefited, for by exchanges and interchanges the needed mental stimulus of regular visits to the centres of learning and regular vacations can be easily arranged.

The now permanent arrangement with some of the medical schools to send us workers during the summer, when our work is heaviest, is a somewhat unusual but almost indispensable method of making our work most efficient. These helpers, who are along all lines of social work, declare they get more than they give in the nature of the work. But we, who are permanent, see the by-products of that link with civil-



ization as a much larger factor in uplift than the modest individuals allow themselves as a rule to enjoy the realization of. The extreme ice conditions of winter force us to retire from the summer buildings, which are necessarily out on islands near the fishing grounds, into the woods at the heads of the inlets, where the winter population, mostly fur trappers and lumbermen, are located.

We have been able this year, in spite of the war, to arrange to erect a good cottage hospital for the northernmost port, at the bottom of Hamilton Inlet, 130 miles directly in from the Indian Harbor Hospital Station. This will be an immense strengthening in efficiency of all the northern work, and we are endeavoring to do the same for the Battle Harbor Hospital Staff, at the bottom of Lewis' Bay—at the entrance of which the summer hospital stands, on an island called "Caribou Island." A pit prop industry has sprung up here which attracted a great many clever men, and which we expect will shortly become a pulp wood work as well.

Existence on these outer islands off the Labrador coast in winter becomes impossible after December, except to the one or two native seal catchers or Eskimo. While in a population that depends almost entirely on their physical fitness for ability to earn their livelihood, we realize that up-to-date surgery and medicine are of supreme importance, the peculiar isolation and resulting economic conditions justify almost an equal stress being laid on prophylaxis along those lines. The harvest of the sea that these men reap is even more precarious and fitful than that of the land farmers. "A feast and a famine" is the local saw to describe Labrador life—and it has been universally recognized, if only tacitly, in the methods by which trade has been carried on for all time.

Food must be brought from the south, such as cereals, sugar, molasses, and oils. For these, therefore, the people depended on summer traders. These men, when making money rapidly, supplied in advance, and carried over those who failed any year at the expense of those who had succeeded. The system was made possible by the fact that the local man knew neither the market value of his produce nor of his own necessities. He was almost entirely illiterate. He seldom or never saw cash as a medium to measure values by,

and as "his trader" disappeared with the open time of navigation, and often left no stock of supplies on the coast during the winter, the individual took all he could get every time—partly also on the principle that the trader might never come back, and that he would himself be "so far to windward"!

The disastrous results of the whole methods in fostering ignorance and a kind of serfdom, of making thrift impossible, and provision for the future unknown, can be easily imagined. The nearest parallel to the conditions evoked would be those of a lot of Indians dealing with an isolated Hudson Bay Company port—a result which, if justifiable as the only one possible with nomad Indians, is entirely indefensible among Europeans.

Divine discontent through the agency of co-operative stores dealing in cash, and through the work of summer teachers, has been one of the principal aims all along. Besides four co-operative stores now running, small centres have been established where one man has through the Association been enabled to "get clear," and, availing himself of the improving government mail service, "buy for cash" in St. John's and freight the product up. Trial showed us that our empty flour barrels could not be used to pack fish in, and get the St. John's market price, but that the sale of the barrel would defray all or almost all the freight expenses. This is now being increasingly done with herring, cod and salmon. This, moreover, is a further direct help to production, for any of our handy men can "make a barrel from the ax in a day," and a good herring barrel is worth a dollar. One most astounding hitch occurs in this relationship, and that is the limitation of the herring market. Tons and tons, and limitless tons of herrings could be barrelled and shipped to market along our coast every year if only there were any market for them. At present by some means the demand is strictly limited—and I have seen again this year coves "dry with herring," "where a net be no use, Doctor, because you'se can bail 'em out wi' a bucket." Our own little experimental farm was manured with this fine, fat, luscious fish this year again. No one wanted the herring. Yet smoked herring, and soused herring, and salt herring are not only excellent, cheap, nourishing food, but are even luxuries rated at a good price in hotels. If a further outcome



of the Association's work next year could be to turn attention to the development of this market, the help to the people of this coast would be enormous. There are, as I write, some fishermen on board, who have just received their accounts from St. John's of their herring—good, large herring or  $2\frac{3}{4}$  meat herring—they got \$2.20 per barrel clear freight; the barrel cost 90 cents, so that the herring is \$1.30 for 200 pounds weight. It seems an economic error that this fish food supply is not fully exploited.

The problem of wages is influenced by the long winter months, when the sea is frozen, even seals being unattainable, and only furs and some small lumbering efforts can be looked to for income.

The war has thrown into our hands the supplying of Pit props to England and France for mine work—the Scandinavian and other supplies being unavailable. But, on the other hand, it has so reduced the demand for furs that once valuable pelts are no longer worth the effort of acquiring, except under very favorable conditions. The general experience is that the trapper who was forced to sell during last winter got nothing practically for his catch. Red foxes fell from \$12.00 to as low as 50 cents. Whites, from \$20.00 to \$3.00. Patches from \$35.00 to \$5.00. Silvers, from many hundreds of dollars to \$40.00 or \$50.00. All this seemed so absolutely disastrous to our people, some remedy had to be looked for. We adopted the principle of allowing some furs, ticketed and labelled by the owners, to be sent to us, or to former workers in the States to be sold, the value, less out of pocket expenses, to be paid into the trappers' credit at St. John's. Private sales to individuals eliminated so much middle profit that several trappers were literally financially saved from hunger by this effort. It is now proposed, if we can obtain the services of the right man and can so afford to arrange for a social effort of the kind, to establish a Fur Exchange or bureau, at least during this time of stress, which could on a business basis advance to a trapper his immediate needs out of the value of his pelt, the bureau in summer to deal direct with buyers, private or professional, and so obtain sure competition for the skins that mean so much to the welfare of our people. On either this question or the herring question I



should more than like to hear from any reader or member any suggestions.

The productive side of the work, as far as women are concerned, is no less promising a field of labor—the home-spun weaving work, the mat making, the basket and carving work, and further north, the ornamental deerskin, have all shown that our women have talent and application to produce material salable, and in demand sufficiently to create a market that will in time add very materially to their ability to procure little requisites of life, while under individual effort as side issues a small but excellent flower-making industry and model making have also sprung into being.

The time and energy devoted to this purely material economic side of life in the north has been requisitioned by the realization of the fact that so many of our local disabling diseases were due really to dietary deficiencies. Thus, on this little hospital steamer this year, I have dealt with a hundred cases of Beri Beri alone. A study of our dietetics conducted by Dr. John Little, of Boston, has shown that the cause is the limitation of the diet of the poor, often to “dry flour” during winter months. Formerly one saw many distressing cases, and even deaths, every winter from true Scorbutus, but campaigns of lectures and simple tracts, and amazing examples of the cure of foul mouths by eating dock leaves, dandelions, alexander, or drinking spruce solutions, etc., has at last prevailed on an almost universal resort to one of the many local natural provisions against that curse, and this acceptance of so radical a lesson by a conservative people has been most effectually emphasized by the habits and customs of the summer school teachers, who do so much more for the cure and prevention of this most prostrating and at times fatal malady by so simple a remedy as potato skins and baked beans. Whole wheat flour is only, however, beginning to overcome the prejudice against “brown flour,” “chipping off the potatoes,” and almost any kind of dried vegetable. Beri Beri has proved fatal to several parturient women, and affects, we think, the welfare of the offspring, far more of whom are stunted, rickety or feeble-minded than a working population in unusually healthy surroundings should show.

The summer teachers above alluded to have also been a slowly but surely developing branch of our work, and almost any one of them could give a better account than I of their many lines of usefulness. Beyond the moral ones of every establishing centre of demonstration and enforcement of domestic and personal hygiene, teaching the rudiments, and supplying the place of friend and helpers. One lady has developed plot gardens to teach agriculture, another has installed the system of supplying brushes and paste for her children's teeth—linking up her work with that of the Association's work in Cleveland and Baltimore, for that important branch of prophylactic hygiene is rapidly becoming more universally recognized. Sea bathing and gymnastics have been the strong side lines of other teachers, while lantern talks and industrial teaching have been side issues with others. These volunteer teachers do a great deal more toward general uplift than they themselves imagine. Some have helped later with sending pupils to finish at such a haven of industrial education as the Pratt Institute at Brooklyn, where we had the pleasure of sending two boys and one girl only a week or two ago. These children, on their return, are themselves infection centres of higher ideals, besides of more skilled and efficient work, of permanent value to their section of coast. The ability to send a few more is one of the standing needs of the work that so many of the teachers emphasize.

The general social work of the large new Institute, or central home, that the Association built at St. John's, the one place to which all our fishermen repair, and far the most popular seaport anywhere in the country, is so manifold and yet so much in vogue elsewhere, that the best compliment I can pay it here is to say it is self-supporting—has become almost indispensable, and the "white elephant" of the fearful has become so recognized a part of our lives that we wonder what the fishermen ever did before. A splendid section devoted to work among girls is also self-supporting; moreover, its effort as a factor for temperance is nowhere more needed, and its powerful influence is going to be no small item in the campaign we are now engaged in for procuring total prohibition for the whole country, as a corollary of the local prohibition we long ago managed to procure. We are sincerely

hoping that the wet country may soon in the best sense be dry. One further branch of work energetically prosecuted these last two years has been the travelling library plan. Assisted by Miss Cutler, librarian of Brooklyn, we organized our local head library at St. Anthony, and having adopted the plan of library boxes with eighty and one hundred books, we now have regularly circulating about one hundred libraries which are moved on annually as the hospital boat comes around. Many interesting facts, have accrued from the experiences of these libraries. The little learning people preserved atrophied and decayed where no interesting books were procurable; the library scheme is proving the solution for the development of much dormant capacity—the books needed are simple, illustrated and educational—the people themselves have out of their own few shelves added quite a flavor to one of the libraries, and also increased their strength.

The use of motor yawls at each of our centres has greatly helped to cover the gaps so large a stretch of country as we endeavor to cover has involved, and the efficiency that can only come of personal individual attention to small issues has been thereby rendered much more possible. The lumber mill and area for fifteen years worked by us, has been leased by the association on terms that fulfill all the aims for which we ourselves acquired and worked it so long, viz: the remunerative winter employment of our industrious, but at times unsuccessful summer fishermen. It is to be now on a larger and more comprehensive scale. The plan of owning a large power schooner for bringing our supplies direct from the U. S. A. and getting her to pay her way by freight for others between has again been eminently successful, besides bringing us into most interesting and friendly relationship with those who in other branches of the world's work have found their fields north of us. She has now had a three month's trip in the Arctic to bring back Dr. MacMillan and the Crocker Land Expedition. Last year she did magnetic work in Hudson Bay for the Carnegie Institution.

The winter will find all the Associations agencies at work. Lastly, one interesting fact has developed, about which many had doubts at first, viz: on the feasibility of an international governing board really meeting and doing practically good



work so far from home. This has been completely established in the affirmative—and again the board found it possible to meet in St. John's, Newfoundland, two of the directors accompanying us personally to visit the work in Labrador. Small and unimportant as the whole work must ever be, considered statistically with that in great countries like China, and India, it is thus proving here on this American continent a point of contact between those to whom life means working for a kingdom of righteousness, a point of contact no less valued by us now in this terrible time of tension of the Great War.

## MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF PREPAREDNESS.

BY THE HONORABLE CHARLES J. BONAPARTE.

An address delivered before the National Security League,  
Monday, June 14, 1915.

The work before this League is plain, practical, urgent and of vast moment. Our fathers framed our present Federal Government for certain great purposes enumerated in the Preamble to the Constitution: of these purposes none is of more vital import to us and to our children than "to provide for the common defence." Our public servants have failed to fulfill their duty by failing to provide adequately for the common defence and, through this failure, have put in jeopardy the honor and safety of our country and the ability of our government, again in the words of the Preamble, "to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and to our posterity." This association is formed to enlighten and arouse public opinion as to the existence and the gravity of this National danger, and thus to obtain from these same public servants, or their successors in our service, such prompt and effective action as may fully remove that danger: to do this, we must see clearly ourselves and be able to show clearly to others just what it is that we want and ask. There must be nothing hazy or obscure about our programme; and, moreover, that programme, if adopted, must bear fruit to-morrow or the day after, not in the distant days of the dim future. The peril against which we would furnish a safeguard may well become imminent within time measured by months, rather than by years; and there is the greater reason to demand an immediate remedy because so much time has been already and so culpably lost through neglect to seek and find a remedy.

Before discussing the character and scope of this remedy we should note that, to be a remedy at all it must be obtainable and obtainable while there is still time to apply a remedy. We must ask for what we can get and get it before it is too late; that there may be something else which would be better,

could we get it, is quite beside the question, if we know we can't get it or that, if obtained, it would do little or no good for twenty or ten or even five years. Therefore, it is, in my humble judgment, inexpedient for this League to recommend, or even to debate, suggested measures as to which we may find any serious difference of opinion among ourselves, or which may involve more or less hotly disputed questions of policy in military or naval organization or administration, or, finally, which could not bear fruit within a generation or even a decade. This is the more important because, in this instance, we have to deal with opponents and critics many of whom do not fight fairly, and who gladly avail themselves of any doubt or dispute as to what had better be done as an excuse or a pretext to obstruct the doing of anything at all.

Moreover, it is well to here say a word in advance as to how far civilians may reasonably ask to be heard on such questions. I am a strong believer in the truth of the adage respecting my own profession: "A man who is his own lawyer has a fool for a client," and a very painful experience has, or ought to have long ago, shown the American people that amateur strategists and tacticians are no less dangerous and no less costly to those they serve than amateur advocates. But one may have sound and sensible ideas about diet and yet be nothing of a cook, and, I think, a reasonably intelligent and well-informed citizen may, without presumption, submit his views as to the ends to be attained in "providing for the common defence," while letting soldiers and sailors tell us what means are necessary or appropriate to attain those ends. In other words, I think a patriotic American, who has given some thought to this vital subject, and has acquired some general knowledge of the conditions of the problem, is justified in telling his fellow-countrymen what he thinks their fleet and their army ought to be able to accomplish, in order to assure the National safety, leaving for Admirals and Generals to tell us how much and what kind of a fleet, how much and what kind of an army, we ought to have to enable them to accomplish what we need and ask of them.

Our country is in far greater danger of invasion now than it was a hundred or even fifty years ago, by reason of two great changes effected during the past four-score and espe-



cially during the past two-score years. Steam, electricity and the vast developments of ship building have converted the oceans which wash our shores from barriers of defence into avenues for aggression. The Atlantic and Pacific no longer protect us, as they did in days when an invading army would have been, in the words of a well-known military writer, "carried in sailing ships moving, with uncertain speed, from 50 to 100 miles in a day and each carrying from 200 to 250 soldiers." Now that all the great military nations have at their instant disposal vast merchant marines, including huge steamers of thirty or forty or fifty thousand tons, and each capable of transporting eight or ten thousand troops and of making, with certainty, five or six hundred miles in twenty-four hours, an ocean has been converted, for military purposes, into a gigantic railway, with unlimited trackage and a wholly uncertain terminus, a terminus which may be shifted, according to the needs or plans of our foe, from Maine to Texas or from the Mexican frontier to that of British Columbia. Even if the French army had been no larger last August than our regular army is to-day, still the Germans would have needed twice as much time to march a hundred thousand men into Paris than they would need to put the same force in Washington or New York, had they command of the sea.

Another portentous phenomenon of recent times has been the enormous increase in armaments since the Franco-German War of 1870. While some of our worthy friends have been pleasantly dreaming of a civilized world wherein swords had been beaten into ploughshares and spears had been turned into pruning forks, a civilized world ruled by Hague Tribunals and Arbitration Treaties, the civilized world of fact has been growing every day more evidently into a world in arms. When the present war began every nation recognized as a Great Power, except Great Britain and ourselves, had become virtually a nation of soldiers; when the present war shall end, there is good reason to believe that we shall be the sole exception. For many years thoughtful and patriotic men, willing to face facts and not hypnotized by self-deception, have watched the gradual development of this situation with steadily increasing anxiety; but even those best informed hardly appreciated the

full measure of its danger to ourselves. Thus General F. V. Green says, in his *Military Policy of the United States*:—

“It would be a mistake on the part of our legislators to attempt to blink or dodge the fact that among the conditions of our national life at the present time is the possibility of war with one or another great nation possessing a trained army of from 300,000 to 1,000,000 men, with ample transport facilities for crossing the oceans which bound our coasts, and a powerful navy to protect such transports. If such a war comes, the attack on our coast will probably precede the declaration of war.”

This book was published only four years ago, but the events of the past ten months prove the assertions thus quoted to be very grave understatements; all the “great nations” of the world, except ourselves, now have “trained armies,” not of “from 300,000 to 1,000,000 of men,” but of from two or three to seven or eight millions.” In 1870, the Germans put into the field seventeen *corps d’armée*; I saw a few days since that they have now seventy, with reserves and garrisons expanded in proportion. Even the immense size of these armies, however, is of less moment in our case than the amazing rapidity wherewith they can now be assembled, equipped and put in motion; the process of mobilization has been literally reduced to a matter of hours. In 1870 it was nineteen days after the declaration of war when the German troops crossed the French frontier in force, and that was then regarded as a wonderfully short time for the purpose. This year the German declaration of war was presented at Petrograd at seven o’clock in the evening of August 1st, and, about noon of August 4th, the invasion of Belgium began. It may or may not be probable that, as General Greene suggests, “the attack on our coasts” would “precede the declaration of war” in the case he supposes; but, it is quite certain that, if the assailant had command of the sea, the attack would, at all events, follow the declaration so quickly that but a few days, at the most, would be given us to prepare to meet it. The problem of preparedness for our country, therefore, involves finding answers to two questions, questions which seem to me of no very great intricacy but of the most vital moment, namely: How shall we prevent an enemy from obtaining command of the sea? and, if command of the sea be lost to us: How shall we prevent

an enemy from inflicting on us irremediable damage after he has landed and before he can be re-inforced?

The Navy must answer the first question, and the minimum requirement for preparedness in its case is the least provision in men, in ships, in guns and other naval weapons, in munitions of every kind and in all instruments or agencies now employed in maritime warfare which will enable it to answer this question satisfactorily and surely. In other words, we must have a navy large enough, strong enough, sufficiently trained, armed and equipped, in short, good enough to meet the navy of any reasonably possible enemy on at least equal terms and with a fair fighting chance for victory. Of course, no provision, however liberal, for the material wants of the Navy will make it a trustworthy bulwark unless we have officers and seamen worthy of their work; if they won't fight, no matter why, then it is useless and foolish to spend money in furnishing them what might be useful to brave men. But I am glad to say, I have no fear on that score: the Navy will do its full duty in the future, as it has always done its full duty in the past: there is much more doubt whether our rulers at Washington will give it what it needs to do its duty successfully. Some months since Sir Rider Haggard said in a speech in Canada:—

"In our country we have a party which for years has tried to drive down our throats the alleged fact that a large navy was not necessary for England. That party at times nearly got the upper hand. About 1886 or 1887 it had the upper hand, but a revival took place; and had it not been for this fact what would have been to-day the state of the country?"

We have had for years the same, or a closely similar, party here; it has more than once obtained the upper hand here, just as its brother in sophistry and mischief did in England. Had the latter succeeded in crippling the British Navy, as it wished and persistently tried to do, England would be now in the condition of Belgium; the corresponding party here, and its accomplices in and out of public life, may cause a disaster no less grievous, unless Americans have sufficient patriotism and sufficient common sense to treat it and its propaganda as they deserve.



If I am asked what I mean by "any reasonably possible enemy," I reply—any power except Great Britain: ordinary prudence demands of our rulers that we have a fighting fleet which could meet on equal terms any fighting fleet in the world except the British. I make this exception, not for sentimental reasons, but because, in the first place, the form of the British Government and the great influence of British public opinion upon the conduct of public affairs make it virtually impossible, not, indeed, that war should break out between the two countries, but that it should break out suddenly, we should certainly have some time, if not time enough, to prepare for such a conflict. Moreover, Great Britain is the only power which could not use its full naval strength to attack us; Germany or Japan or any other conceivable enemy could send against us every fighting craft it had capable of crossing the ocean; England's safety imperatively demands that a powerful armament be always kept in English waters or within call.

It may be also queried whether equality of strength is sufficient, whether, with our very small army, we do not need a navy clearly stronger than that of any probable foe. This League is not giving counsels of perfection; we are asking what we must have, and have just as soon as we can get it, to assure the National safety: not what it might be well for us to have, could we have anything we might ask and have it for the asking. A fleet which can meet an enemy's fleet on equal terms at least assures us of the respite before actual invasion afforded by a naval campaign; for no power would attempt to send a fleet of transports loaded with troops across the Atlantic or Pacific, if the war fleet convoying it had to meet an enemy of such force as to make the issue of a decisive conflict doubtful. The supposed hostile war fleet would be, in the first place, seriously handicapped by having always to protect the transports, and, moreover, were it defeated, this might and probably would lead to a tremendous disaster, involving perhaps the capture or destruction of the entire invading army. If our sailors can fight with a fair show for victory, they may be finally defeated, for the fates of war are ever doubtful, but they will, at least, give us some of that precious time for preparation, that time which America, if

threatened with invasion, is almost sure to need as sorely as Ajax needed light.

Our rulers and those who make or keep them our rulers will bear a terrible responsibility, however, if we, a nation of one hundred millions of people, with probably greater natural resources, greater accumulated wealth and greater latent strength than any other nation under Heaven, through sheer laziness, cowardice, frivolity or folly, shall be left in such a state of self-imposed helplessness that, for us, serious invasion shall mean, of necessity, utter defeat and subjugation; this is very nearly our state at present. To meet the approval of our consciences, to retain our self-respect, we must feel ourselves able to deal with an enemy who has effected a landing on our shores in any force which, according to reasonable probabilities, might be brought over-seas at one time. Fortunately, this force, although far larger than it would have been a hundred years ago, is far less than the present military establishment of any one of the Great Powers, probably not over one in twenty of the soldiers of such a nation could get under arms within a fortnight could be sent against us at one shipment. Moreover, although the time needed for a double voyage across one or the other of the great oceans is ominously shorter than it was in the days of our great-grandfathers, still three or four weeks at the very least, with a reasonable allowance for accidents, probably thirty days, must elapse even now between the arrival of a hostile fleet of transports at some point on our coast and its return with a second army to reinforce the one it first brought over and landed. Thirty days may be easily wasted, but they have been long enough to determine the issue of some of the greatest wars of modern times, and, if we are well prepared to use them to the best advantage, they may be long enough to assure our safety, even against an enemy who has command of the sea.

For this purpose, in my humble judgment, we need a thoroughly organized and appointed field army, at least equal in discipline, in instruction, in armament and in every kind of equipment needed for modern warfare, to the best troops of any foreign power, an army kept permanently on a war footing in every respect, so located and so provided with railroad transportation as to be concentrated, say within a week at



most, at any point of our seaboard and exceeding in number, say by fifty *per centum* any force which any one power at any one time might land at the point in question. This would be certainly a very, *very* small army for a nation of one hundred millions to maintain, probably it would not much exceed one in a hundred of the number of men in our country fit to bear arms; it is, however, for our military men, and not for a civilian like me, to say just what its exact number and composition should be. All that I ask, or rather suggest that this League shall ask, is that we may have an army ready for service and strong enough, if properly commanded, to crush the largest force which any hostile power could bring at a single shipment across either ocean within the time needed for the transports which had brought this force to return home and come back with reinforcements.

A fleet able to contend on equal terms with any fleet except the British, an army able to crush any invading army which could be landed at any one time by any one power before it could be re-inforced—these, to my mind, are the minimum requisites of preparedness for the United States. Other things I would gladly see provided and think ought to be provided; these two things, or equivalents for them, *must* be provided, in my judgment, if our country is not to remain in constant jeopardy. To provide them we need no amendment of our Constitution, no material change in our laws, no abandonment of our National traditions or customs, no modification of our administrative methods: we need only a generous supply of money and honesty, patriotism, energy and sound judgment in its expenditure. Personally, I have no doubt that we can get all the sailors we want and all the soldiers we want for the liberal pay we now give them; if we find we can't, we must simply pay them more. Some time will be needed, of course, to give us such a fleet and such an army; but, so far as I can see, far less time than would be needed to perfect and make effective any other suggested plan to assure an adequate provision for the common defence. I think it deplorable that ten months of the European war have passed without our government's doing, or even, so far as I know, deciding to do, anything of moment to fulfill this grave and urgent Constitutional duty; but it is useless to cry over spilt milk; let us all



do whatever each one of us can to prevent the waste of more of the time afforded us by a respite which may well be too short for our safety.

Doubtless the cost of any adequate provision for the common defence, whether in the forms above suggested or otherwise, will be considerable; we have fallen so far behind that we must spend money to regain our proper place; but for no purpose can the public credit be used with a clearer conscience than, as the Preamble says, "to secure the blessings of liberty to our posterity," to spare them the fate of the Trojan women, as pictured by Euripides, or of the Belgians, as disclosed to our own eyes. Nor could any expenditure constitute a better investment: we will lay out one dollar in preparation for defence to save ten or twenty or, perhaps, fifty dollars in tribute to our conquerors. Shortly before the War of 1812 the then Secretary of the Treasury reported with pride and satisfaction to Congress that in eleven years forty-six millions of dollars of our National debt had been paid off; these economies, however, had starved both our army and our navy; our notorious unpreparedness invited insults and aggressions, which led to war; and the same unpreparedness then caused disasters so damaging to our credit that we had to borrow several times what we had saved with humiliating difficulty and at usurious rates.

What I have proposed is, in the strictest sense, defensive; no foreign power can pretend, with a straight face, to fear an attack from us because we intend to have an army numbering somewhere from a twentieth to a tenth of the force it has now actually in the field. But, to my mind, nothing else we could do now would be so likely to give weight to our words if addressed to any of the present belligerents. Jonathan Russell, then our Chargé d'Affaires in London, wrote on May 9th, 1812, to James Monroe, who was then Secretary of State:—

"We have a reputation in Europe for saying so much and doing so little that we shall not be believed in earnest until we act in a manner not to be mistaken."

I fear that our *real* reputation in Europe to-day, the reputation disclosed by private correspondence and in daily, frank intercourse with all sorts of people abroad, does not differ very widely from what it was a hundred years ago. To "be

believed in earnest," as Russell says, in other words, to have attention paid when we speak and respect either felt or shown for our sentiments and wishes, we must show, again quoting Russell, "in a manner not to be mistaken," that, at all events, we are prepared to meet and repel aggression. In a debate in the Senate on February 8, 1809, Senator Giles, of Virginia, said:—

"Sir when love of peace degenerates into fear of war it becomes of all passions the most despicable."

We Americans sincerely love peace, but many foreigners who judge us, not altogether unreasonably, by what some more or less prominent Americans say and do, believe our professed love of peace is only a cloak for fear of war, and, believing this, they think of us in accordance with the words of Senator Giles. "If we would have them respect us, let us show them, and the whole world with them, by our acts, that, if, unhappily, war shall await us, we shall be ready for war."

## WORK OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS SINCE AUGUST 1, 1914.

BY MABEL T. BOARDMAN.

The past fourteen months have been exceedingly busy ones in the history of the American Red Cross. The immense war that has overwhelmed almost all of Europe has brought about an amount of suffering both upon combatants and non-combatants unparalleled in history. The American Red Cross has forwarded funds entrusted to it for non-combatant relief to various committees engaged in this work, but has not entered into active participation in this field of relief, devoting its energies rather to aiding in the care of the sick and wounded. It has sent a personnel of 367 surgeons, nurses and sanitary experts to Europe. These have been stationed in every one of the European countries engaged in the war with the exception of Italy, which has not desired, as yet, such assistance; Turkey, which has been aided rather with funds and supplies, and also a medical expedition sent by the Red Cross Chapter from Beirut, Syria; and Bulgaria, which has only just entered the conflict. These surgeons and nurses have had hospitals placed under their charge in these various countries, and have done a most efficient work. In a number of hospitals over which they have had charge the records show that only three or four per thousand of the wounded who have come under their care have died.

The Sanitary Commission, under Dr. Richard P. Strong, and in the support of which the Rockefeller Foundation greatly assisted the Red Cross by generous financial grants, checked the very serious epidemic of typhus that was raging in Serbia. A personnel has also been sent to Serbia for a Baby Hospital for which special contributions were received.

Both for the sanitary expedition and for the work for the sick and wounded in the various countries involved in the war immense stores of hospital and sanitary supplies have been forwarded to Europe. The number of these amount to many



millions of articles, both donated and purchased with funds that have been contributed.

From contributed funds the Red Cross has remitted between four and five hundred thousand dollars of specially designated contributions to the Red Cross societies of the countries; and undesignated contributions have been forwarded for various purposes, mainly towards the support of the hospitals in Europe, such as the American Ambulance, Paris; the American Red Cross Hospital at Munich, and the various hospitals in which American Red Cross personnel have served; the Work of the Sanitary Commission in Serbia; in aid of the German and Austrian prisoners in Siberia; for ambulance service at the front in England, France and Germany; for the Prisoners' Bureau at Geneva; for aid of the blind in Germany and France; to aid in the maintenance of the American Relief Clearing House in Paris; for the expenses of the distribution of supplies of the French Emergency Wounded Fund; for Belgian relief in Holland, and the Red Cross of the Netherlands; for the British, French and American mission hospitals in Turkey, the English hospital at Smyrna, relief work at Beirut, Syria; Jewish relief in Palestine, refugee relief at Tabriz, Persia; for the British Red Cross Intelligence Committee, and for various other relief work.

All administrative expenses have been borne by the American Red Cross, so that the relief funds were entirely utilized for relief purposes.

The cost of supplies purchased amounted to something over \$350,000. For the salaries and maintenance of surgeons and nurses, and for the travel of personnel and transportation of supplies, equipment, etc., more than half a million dollars have been expended. For the Sanitary Commission work \$135,000 has been appropriated.

At the request of the German government, and with the consent of the Russian government, a medical expedition of American Red Cross surgeons and nurses has been sent to care for German and Austrian prisoners in Russia, its expenses being met jointly by the German and Austrian governments. A like expedition is being arranged to aid Russian prisoners in Germany, with the consent of the German government.

Besides this very large work that has been carried on in Europe, relief has been carried on in Mexico among the starving people there. For some time the American Red Cross agent through eight soup kitchens fed 125,000 persons a day in Mexico City. As General Carranza announced that such assistance was no longer required by the Mexican government, the American Red Cross agent was withdrawn from Mexico City. In the north for some time some twenty-odd thousand persons were fed a day at Monterey with food sent by the American Red Cross. Carloads of food were also sent and distributed by an American Red Cross agent at Monclova, and effort was made to get to Saltillo, but because of the destruction of railroads and also the continuous fighting in that district this was impossible of accomplishment. At present the American Red Cross is withdrawing from the Mexican relief situation.

The relief after the Eastland disaster in Chicago has been placed entirely in the hands of the Red Cross, and a most efficient piece of work done there, Chicago raising a fund of \$350,000 for this purpose.

During the winter a serious typhoon in the Samoan Islands brought great suffering, for which the Red Cross appropriated funds from its contingent fund, which were wisely administered by Governor Poyer, the United States Naval Officer in command of the islands.

Food supplies were also sent to some of the natives of the Ladrone Islands that were threatened with starvation because war conditions had stopped all traffic with the islands. As the Japanese have now taken over these islands report was made to the Japanese Red Cross of the condition, and the Japanese government undertook further relief of these unfortunate people.

Admiral Caperton reported the serious need for relief in Hayti, where the revolutionary conditions had brought some of the poorer class to a point of starvation. Funds were also appropriated for this purpose and administered under Admiral Caperton's directions.

This, in brief, is a statement of the activities of the American Red Cross during the past twelve months, and shows

both the need for its service and the value of an efficient permanent organization.

In addition to this relief work the regular work of the society in the way of first aid instructions among miners, trainmen, lumbermen and various other industrial employes has been continued and expanded, also the organization and training of life saving corps along the water fronts. The Town and Country Nursing Service has steadily increased, and some forty or fifty nurses are now established in various small communities. The classes in Elementary Hygiene, Home Care of the Sick, and Dietetics, for women have been maintained in a number of communities, and such classes are increasing each year.



## THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

BY FRANZ SCHNEIDER, JR.

### I.

The Russell Sage Foundation came into corporate being on April 11, 1907, by an act of the legislature of the State of New York. This act, prepared under the direction of Mrs. Sage, provided for a body corporate, "for the purpose of receiving and maintaining a fund or funds and applying the income thereof to the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States of America." To this end the trustees were empowered to use any means that might seem expedient, including research, publication, education, and the establishment and maintenance, or aid, of benevolent activities, agencies and institutions. The act also provided that the Foundation might take, hold, and convey, for any of its purposes, any amount of any kind of property, and might invest and re-invest any principal, and expend the income in such manner as the trustees might deem best. The other provisions of the act were the usual ones calling for a meeting of organization and the adoption of a constitution and by-laws.

Eight days after the act of incorporation, April 19, 1907, the eight incorporators, Mrs. Russell Sage, Robert W. deForest, Cleveland H. Dodge, Daniel C. Gilman, John M. Glenn, Miss Helen M. Gould, Mrs. William B. Rice, and Miss Louisa L. Schuyler, met, adopted a constitution, and resolved that each trustee should within ten days furnish suggestions as to the plan and scope of the Foundation, that such suggestions, and any others of value received from outside sources, should be printed and sent to each trustee, and that a special meeting thereupon be called to consider all questions of plan and scope. The trustees at this time also received from Mrs. Sage securities and cash aggregating \$10,000,000 and a letter of gift expressing certain desires which she wished carried out as far as might be expedient. One of the chief points of interest in this letter is Mrs. Sage's wish that the Foundation should

not duplicate effort already under way, but that it take up "the larger and more difficult problems," and in doing this attempt to secure the aid and co-operation of existing agencies. Other points of interest are her desire that not less than one-quarter of the income be applied exclusively for the benefit of New York City and its vicinity, and not less than one-quarter to the United States at large or the parts of it outside New York City and its vicinity; and her authorization that the trustees might invest the principal up to one-quarter (later amended to one-half) of the whole fund in activities aimed to improve social and living conditions, provided such investments should be likely, in the opinion of the trustees, to produce a return of not less than three per cent.

Additional points of interest are to be found in the constitution, such as the provision for a self-perpetuating board of nine trustees to serve without term; the creation of the offices of president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and director; and the creation of an executive committee, consisting of the president, vice-president, and three others to be chosen annually by ballot from the trustees, to exercise the powers of the board between meetings, supervise the property, and determine investments.

Thus a trust of \$10,000,000 was given into the hands of a board of self-perpetuating trustees with very broad powers both as to the care of the principal and the expenditure of the income and with very broad instructions as to the object of their activities—the improvement of living and social conditions. The advantage of this breadth of scope was plainly manifest and widely and favorably commented on at the time of the gift; the Foundation was designed to meet no local or temporary need, but was conceived in such terms as would permit it to keep pace with all the changing conditions and problems of our life. As long as living and social conditions might fall short of the ideal, the Foundation's opportunity would lie before it; with each change in our social organization and practice the Foundation would set itself anew to its task—to discover the opportunity for further improvement. This catholicity of purpose, at the same time, could not but add to the arduousness of the trustees' labors, for instead of having the relatively simple task of organizing a campaign

directed against one particular evil, or with one particular object, they were obliged to grapple with the entire field of humanitarian endeavor and decide on which of the almost countless opportunities for service they should concentrate their efforts. In addition, with the announcement of the gift a very great number of requests for assistance worthy and unworthy, from individuals and organizations, flowed in upon the Foundation.

To relieve this situation, the trustees quickly decided on three important restrictions to the Foundation's potential activity. First, it would not attempt to relieve individual or family need; it would rather attempt to seek out and eliminate the underlying causes of this evil, and thus carry out Mrs. Sage's desire that the Foundation attack the "larger and more difficult problems." Second, it would not enter the sphere of higher education, which the trustees considered sufficiently cared for by the General Education Board. The Foundation would, however, seek to further that education that more directly affects social and living conditions—such as industrial education, that in household arts, and the training of social workers. Third, it would not be within the scope of the Foundation to render aid to churches for church purposes, whatever their denomination. Even with these limitations the scope of the Foundation was broad enough to give pause to the bravest, but with Mrs. Sage as President, Mr. Robert W. deForest as Vice-President, and Mr. John M. Glenn as Secretary and Director, the Foundation settled to its task in May, 1907, within a month of its incorporation.

## II.

In the eight years elapsing since its incorporation the Sage Foundation has sought to fulfill its purpose in all the several ways suggested in its charter. It has subsidized worthy activities and organizations; it has established investigational and propagandist departments of its own; it has invested its funds in activities with a social purpose; and it has published extensively in book and pamphlet form. In addition, it has erected a building in New York City to house its activities.

The policy of subsidizing existing organizations was, considering the terms of the gift, a most natural one for the



Foundation to adopt, especially in the early days of its existence. Duplication of effort would certainly be avoided, and a quick and sure start made on benefaction in the period that must of necessity elapse before the Foundation could descry important neglected needs, formulate its own scheme of co-ordinated investigation into the causes of evil social and living conditions, and create the necessary staff. Consequently subsidies were granted to a considerable number of varied activities and organizations. In line with Mrs. Sage's desire for attention to her own vicinity grants were made to such organizations as the State Charities Aid Association and the New York and Brooklyn Charity Organization Societies; but it should be noted that these funds were given with the stipulation that they be used not for relief but for investigation or education.

Aid was also given to the movements for the study and prevention of tuberculosis, the improvement of housing conditions, and the prevention of blindness. Other characteristic grants were to the schools for social workers in New York, Boston, Chicago and St. Louis, to the Pittsburgh Survey, and to the Survey magazine. In financing all these, and many other activities, the Foundation set an example of unselfish co-operation, caring not for notice or credit, but merely that the work in hand reach the most successful termination. In the words of Mr. deForest, "The Foundation is quite ready to be known as playing a leading part if thereby the drama can be brought to a satisfactory conclusion, and it is equally satisfied to take a humble role, and even entirely to efface itself, if thereby a successful climax can be reached." This self-effacing characteristic of the Foundation creates a special difficulty in showing in concrete terms the nature and extent of its good works.

In prosecuting investigations on its own account the Sage Foundation has created nine departments or divisions, employing in one capacity or another some eighty persons. The work of these departments is entirely of an investigational or propagandist nature. Studies are made of general principles or special problems or situations, and the results are set forth in books, pamphlets, exhibits, or through other publicity media. The principle involved is to seek out the truth with

every care and bring it home to the public in the clearest and most effective fashion, relying on an informed public for reform.

One of the first departments to be established was that of Charity Organization, its object being to further science and practice in that field, interpreting the field broadly to include the better co-ordination of all social service. Another of the departments created at an early stage of the Foundation's history is that of Child Helping, its object being the improvement of our methods of dealing with the country's dependent, neglected, delinquent, and defective children. Other departments are that of Recreation—to aid in the constructive social organization of leisure time, and that of Surveys and Exhibits—to develop the social survey and the exhibit as implements for the improvement of the conditions of community life. In addition there is a department engaged in the investigation of industrial conditions known as the Committee on Women's Work, and three divisions—one of Education, devoted to school hygiene and teaching methods and research, one of Remedial Loans, operating against loan sharks, and one engaged in studying conditions in the territory surrounding the southern Apalachian Mountains. Finally, the Foundation maintains a special Library on social questions; one that represents a consolidation of the library material of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, the State Charities Aid Association, the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, the New York School of Philanthropy, and the Foundation itself. The library is very strong in its field and is open to all.

The most striking example of the Foundation's policy of investing its funds in activities with a social purpose is undoubtedly its real estate development at Forest Hills Gardens on Long Island. The underlying idea was to make an investment which would show a fair commercial return and at the same time serve as a demonstration of what may be accomplished under such conditions in the way of town planning. The development is not at all one to meet a need for workingmen's homes, as is commonly supposed; it is an enterprise intended to appeal to the moderately well-to-do. The peculiar features of the town are the attempt to attain a pleas-



ing variety in the streets and parks and an attractive and not incongruous architecture, and the provision of an inn and other elements of a community centre. The Sage Foundation Homes Company, which was created to carry on the enterprise, offers lots with finished houses, for sale or to rent, or will build to suit the purchaser, or the latter may build from his own designs. In the latter instance the design must meet with the approval of the company's architect. The prices of the finished homes range from \$8,000 to \$25,000, a fact which obviously puts the development well out of the workingmen's homes class. In addition to the Forest Hills venture the Foundation has invested money in the Provident Loan Society, the National Employment Exchange and the Chattel Loan Society of New York City—organizations whose purpose is to meet the need for small loans at a reasonable rate of interest and whose dividends are limited to six per cent.

Publication is, as has been suggested, one of the Foundation's most important functions. Up to the present, editions of forty-four bound volumes have been issued under its own seal, while approximately three hundred pamphlet publications have been issued by its departments. These publications cover a wide range of social subjects, and present the views of, or the results of investigations made by, members of the Foundation's staff or specially commissioned experts. The effort is made to have the books well illustrated and readable, and in practical and inexpensive form. The publications find a considerable circulation among libraries, university teachers and students, social workers, and other social-minded persons, and so exert their influence toward the improvement of living conditions.

All these developments in the Foundation's activities and staff called for considerable office space, and as there were manifest advantages in having the general offices, library, and several departments under one roof, the trustees decided to build a Russell Sage Foundation Building. The location chosen was at the corner of Lexington Avenue and Twenty-second Street, New York City, close to the United Charities Building; and here a nine-story office building was erected, being completed in November, 1913. Beside housing the several departments the building contains two large halls specially



designed for assembly and exhibition purposes, equipped with moving picture facilities, and so constructed that they may be thrown into one; two rooms for committee meetings; a lunch and rest room for women employes and a roof fitted for recreation and other uses. One floor and part of another are occupied by other societies engaged in philanthropic work; the rest of the building is entirely given over to the purposes of the Foundation.

### III.

The question naturally arises as to what subjects the Sage Foundation, in its efforts to discover or remove the causes of bad living and social conditions, has considered of special importance; and as to the nature of its efforts in dealing with these subjects. An answer to this question would be interesting as shedding light on the Foundation's social theory and its idea of an adequate working program of social investigation and betterment. Such a divination of its interest and intent is difficult to arrive at, partly because of the relatively large proportion of its resources devoted to the subsidization of other activities and organizations in its earlier days, partly because any program composed by a number of trustees must lack something in coherence and show the effects of compromise between individual preferences, and partly because the Foundation is still young. Still, it seems worth while to attempt to read its intent from its acts.

Certainly one of the Foundation's major interests has been the organization of aid and protection of the poor—of charity organization and social service. One of its oldest and strongest departments is devoted to this subject, while it has subsidized schools for the education of social workers and given funds to the two Charity Organization Societies of Greater New York for investigation purposes. In addition, it has subsidized the American Association for Organizing Charity, promoted surveys of local charity situations, carried on a campaign against loan sharks, and published the results of special studies on such subjects as "Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City," "One Thousand Homeless Men," "Social Work in Hospitals," and "The Almshouse." It is probably fair to say that this work has been

directed more at the methods of dealing with poverty than at discovering its causes.

Another subject that has received a good share of the Foundation's attention is child welfare. Departments of child helping and hygiene were among the first established, and when the latter was discontinued it was succeeded by two others devoted respectively to education and recreation. The expenses of the Children's Conference at Washington in 1909 were largely met by the Foundation; and it has promoted surveys of various phases of child welfare in a number of cities. More than half of all departmental pamphlets have been devoted to this subject, as has a considerable proportion of the Foundation's bound volumes. Examples of the subjects treated in the latter are, "Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children," "The Delinquent Child and the Home," "Medical Inspection of Schools," "Laggards in Our Schools," and "Among School Gardens."

Industrial conditions, too, have found their place among the Foundation's interests. The Committee on Women's Work has studied conditions among working women in New York, and is now broadening the scope of its endeavors to include men as well as women. The Pittsburgh Survey, with its revealing reports on work accidents, hours, wages, and other work conditions among the steel and other workers in our largest industrial center, which has been such a potent force for industrial improvement in the country, was made possible by the generous financial assistance of the Sage Foundation. Surveys of industrial conditions have been made in Topeka, Kansas, and Springfield, Illinois, and books have been published on such subjects as "Workingmen's Insurance in Europe," "Fatigue and Efficiency," "Saleswomen in Mercantile Stores," "Working Girls in Evening Schools," and "Women in the Bookbinding Trade."

Health conditions have been touched on in the Foundation's work in behalf of children and workingmen; their importance has also been recognized in subsidies granted the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis and the Committee for the Prevention of Blindness. The Foundation also financed the elaborate study made of typhoid fever in Pittsburgh, and has, through its Department of Sur-

veys, made intensive public health surveys in a number of cities.

Housing betterment also is encouraged, chiefly by grants to the National Housing Association and the publication of such books as "Housing Reform," and "A Model Housing Law"; while delinquency problems have called forth volumes on such subjects as "Correction and Prevention," "Prison Reform and Criminal Law," "Penal and Reformatory Institutions," and "Juvenile Court Laws in the United States Summarized," as well as surveys of correctional systems in several cities.

Such, in general, appear to have been the chief interests of the Russell Sage Foundation. Its policy in applying the income of its \$10,000,000 to the improvement of social and living conditions seems to have been to back up and develop the existing line of attack against evil influences rather than to organize a deep-searching probe into the ultimate causes of misery. The Foundation has at all times emphasized the fact that its funds shall be spent for research and the dissemination of knowledge, and not relief; it should be noted, however, that its research has been directed chiefly at improving methods of relief and prevention in certain fields rather than at measuring the interplay of fundamental factors in the whole social problem. It has in its library work and its subsidies to certain publications and investigations lent aid to the science of sociology, and it has, through the Pittsburgh Survey and its Department of Surveys and Exhibits, promoted the co-ordinated study of the reactions of a number of social forces in one particular community of humanity at one time; but these works have not as yet been carried very deep into the problem of evaluating the relative importance of the fundamental causes of misery, nor have they absorbed more than a small part of the Foundation's resources. The Foundation's policy may therefore be described as one of investigation and propaganda with a remedial and preventive intent, based on conviction of the importance of certain well-established lines of betterment work. Such a policy would seem to occupy a middle ground between direct relief and the venture of a scientific research into the fundamental causes of evil social conditions.



## THE WAR AND MUSIC IN AMERICA.

BY H. E. KREHBIEL.

(From *The Tribune*, of October 10, 1915.)

Much has been written about the probable effect which the war in Europe will have on art generally, but on literature and music in particular throughout the Western world. So far as literature is concerned, the question goes only to the likelihood of changes in ideals, contents and manner of expression; in music other factors enter the problem, and others besides authors and publishers are concerned. In the production of books the effect of the war will be felt chiefly by the writers; it will provide them with new material, open up new lines of thought, invite them to new experiments in psychological analysis, tempt them to new speculations in the field of morals and religion. They will not need to give heed to their readers, for their tastes will be shaped by the offerings placed before them. In love jealousy "makes the meat it feeds on"; in literature the author creates the appetite to which he wishes to pander. The author and the publisher, that is. The publisher will, of course, consult his business interests, and I fancy that we shall continue to have a surfeit of war literature and light-waisted fiction to the neglect of books of a loftier and more enduring kind. Publishers have ever been a selfish folk, and they are not likely to turn to altruistic endeavor while the world is in its present throes. Let us dismiss them from our thoughts till they give us things to think about.

With music the case is very different. Here consideration is challenged by the composer, the publisher, the consumer (a fleshly word which ought to have no place in a discussion of art!), the purveying artist, the teacher and the student. Let the question be localized and it looms largest in the educational field, or rather—since all manifestations of the art are in a sense educational—in the pedagogic. America is called upon not only to alleviate want and suffering amongst the warring peoples, but also to give hospitality and support to a horde

of invading artists and teachers, who have hitherto earned their livelihood in European countries. The invasion was great a year ago; it grew greater as the war went on, and it will continue till long after the war is over.

When the end is reached it will be found that what was at first considered a temporary haven has become the permanent home of thousands who, having fled the dangers and hardships of war, will not care to return to their devastated and impoverished countries. Devastation and impoverishment will be universal in Europe, there can be no doubt about that, and musicians would be unable to ameliorate them by pursuing their profession even if they were to return to their homes. They will remain here, the majority of them; they have become a charge on our country; they have cast their lot with the American people, whether for that people's good or ill, from a material and a cultural point of view remains to be seen. It would be unfair if the whole burden of this new immigration should fall upon the people of this country—upon its teachers and its artists. A portion of it, being accepted willingly or unwillingly by the immigrants or invaders, may bear good fruit. Let us consider the opera, which a wide fallacy would have us think is an educational institution of great puissance. As a matter of fact, the opera is not a great teacher of anything. It is not the highest form of musical art, but it is the most popular, and from the popular point of view it ought to benefit from the new state of things, I mean the institution itself, not the individuals who make their living out of it. The war has placed the managers in the position of being able to lessen the demands made upon them hitherto by the singers. These demands have grown to be exorbitant, and if the managers are willing to share the good which will result from their reduction with the public the opera may be put on a saner and a larger foundation than it has occupied heretofore. It is no secret to persons familiar with the workings of the Metropolitan Opera that the conditions were strained to the utmost two years ago. The outbreak of the war made the giving of opera at the Metropolitan problematical for a space and put a quietus on it in Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago. If it is continued it will doubtless be under conditions more favorable to the management than



those which have prevailed of late years. So far as the remuneration of singers is concerned the law of supply and demand will remain operative, though with some change. Abnormal fees for a few of the principal singers were a consequence of the abnormal demands of the public. The clamor for a few exceptional voices had to be gratified, and the demands of the possessors of those voices grew until a state of affairs came into existence which in a short time would have become unendurable. That state underwent some change last season; it will undergo more, and it may be that before the conditions in European opera houses are restored to their old status the question of whether or not America can support not one but several operatic institutions will have been answered in the affirmative.

Another change which is already foreshadowed cannot be contemplated with the same satisfaction. One of the evils of foreign musical instruction, an evil that permeates other fields besides the operatic, has been the luring of American students to Europe by the promise of engagements, or debuts at least, in foreign institutions—the opera houses of Italy in particular. The worthlessness, as a rule, of these opportunities have frequently been set forth by the honest and intelligent writers on musical affairs for the American newspapers. To the dishonest traffickers in them, agents and teachers, these opportunities, which have cost many a parent large sums of money that could be ill afforded and many an operatic aspirant disappointment and even shame, the war has interposed an obstacle which we may expect to see them attempt to overcome by the organization of opera companies with high sounding names on this side of the ocean. They will be helped by some of the many singers brought home from the petty theatres of the Continent, who will be expected by their parents and backers to show a return for the time and money spent abroad; but the only outcome of this movement is likely to be a disillusionment on all sides and an increase in the number of unfit teachers of high pretensions. If the humbug of foreign debuts and purchased puffery is thoroughly exposed in consequence, however, it will be one creditable thing to be set down in the war account.



This fraud against student, patron and public has been most flagrantly perpetrated hitherto in the operatic field, but other departments of music have not been free from it. I have never joined in the outcry against foreign instruction for American music students, but have always contended that while as good instrumental and vocal teachers are to be found in the principal cities of the United States as in the capitals of Europe, the artistic life of those capitals offered valuable advantages to serious minded students. These advantages are the same in kind as those offered by such artistic centres as New York, Boston and Chicago to the students in less favored cities in our own country.

The benefit which the student derives from hearing high class music performed in a masterly manner can, indeed, be enjoyed better in New York to-day than in any foreign city; but it would be folly to deny the value of the influence which the older and more general culture of Europe exerts upon an impressionable mind, be that mind intent upon music or any other polite study. One might as well deny the value of the great art galleries and cathedrals to the students of painting, sculpture and architecture. Sneers at the "artistic atmosphere" of ancient centres of esthetic refinement are cheap and easy; but they are not arguments. The chief objection to foreign musical study is that it is too often made a specious cover for loose moral conduct. Young persons too often seek it, not to avail themselves of its real advantages, but to escape the conventional restraints which they are under, while within the surveillance of friends and kindred. They long for the air of the Bohemia of which so much wicked nonsense has been written, and when they return to home and patrons with health shattered and money wasted, with all the hopes of success in their calling destroyed, they charge it against the system which they have helped to perpetuate or impudently seek to impose upon their benefactors by tales of triumphs abroad an insufficient culture to appreciate them at their own valuation at home.

Of late years many American teachers have established themselves abroad, some of them to fatten upon the delusions and follies of students and the ignorant complacency of parents and patrons. It is not to be supposed that they under-

went a sea change which made them better teachers under foreign skies than they had been under their own or that they expected to draw any considerable number of foreign students unto themselves because they hailed from America. Their expatriation enabled them, however, to gratify the desire of students to get away from home (and sometimes their chaperons, too), and to collect larger fees than they could have obtained in their own country. They have swelled the tide of musical immigrants and will advertise their years of foreign abode among their qualifications. Will they, adding their numbers to that of their foreign colleagues who have come to us for sustenance, raise or lower the standard of instruction in this country? Or the standard of fees? Will they seek to introduce in the American capitals the devices from which American pupils and American parents have suffered abroad? Will they and their companions be favored over the native teachers, who have pursued their careers without resorting to the tricks for catching gudgeons which have been only too common abroad? Will not the large influx of foreign teachers depreciate the wage of the profession and the large number of concert giving artists marooned in America lessen the honoraria which they can command for concerts? In the last case who is to benefit from the change—the managers or the public? If I were to attempt to answer these questions exhaustively I would be forced into tiresome speculation. There is one thing which can be said for the encouragement of native teachers—pupils are generally faithful to the teachers who have advanced them and dread a change of methods. This is especially true of teachers of real ability and good repute. Teachers of a lower grade usually get their pupils through personal influence and from the locality in which they live, and into these localities newcomers will find it difficult to penetrate, as they will also have difficulty in setting aside the personal influence which will militate against them. If they have the wisdom to go to the many cities and towns in the Middle West, which are not overcrowded with teachers of knowledge and experience, their coming may be generally advantageous to the art. This is the present aspect of the case. What will happen if the war lasts until the countries of Europe are drained of their wealth and forced to economize

by curtailing their support of art and art study I do not wish to speculate about. I look forward to it in dread, because it seems to me inevitable. Will any of our dams withstand the inrush of the waters?

The residence in America of the virtuosi of the first rank who came to us last year and who will come this, will greatly increase the opportunities of students to learn both by precept and example. The artists will no doubt find it necessary to extend their field of activity. Last season their presence created a plethora of concerts in New York, with the result that only half a dozen of them were financially successful. Since scarcely one of them has gone and others have come they will be obliged to "spread themselves" (in Bully Bottoms' phrase) and more communities than usual will be favored with their ministrations; and this will be a good thing for the communities.

The effect of the advent of a large number of foreign orchestra players last autumn will no doubt be seen in some of our bands this season. Many of these musical handicraftsmen are Austrians and Germans who were driven out of England at the outbreak of the war. They have been hospitably received here, some of them having been aided by benevolent individuals and organizations. It is doubtful if many of these musicians will ever wish to return to Europe; they, too, have become a charge upon America. To a small extent they may, if permitted by the Federation of Musicians (which is the musical trade union), better artistically the personnel of our orchestras; but the experiences of managers and conductors in the past do not encourage large hopes in this direction. It is not the aim of the union to aid in the betterment of musical performances, but to keep up the rate of wage and also to keep old men in and new men out. If the immigration continues the Federation of Musicians may be counted upon to uphold the President of the United States in any repressive action which he may feel called upon to take toward Germany.



## RURAL CREDITS.

BY DUNCAN U. FLETCHER.

Extracts from the speech delivered before the United States Senate on March 3, 1915.

The figures given and accepted as substantially accurate show there are 12,000,000 farmers in the United States, and the value of farm property, including animals, amounts to some \$40,000,000,000. The last report of the Department of Agriculture gives the value of all farm crops, farm-animal products, and farm animals sold and slaughtered as aggregating, for the last year, \$9,872,926,000. Assuming that of this, two-thirds, or \$6,500,000,000 worth went to market, the remainder being consumed on the farm, it is estimated that consumers paid \$13,900,000,000 for that two-thirds, which means that some \$7,000,000,000 disappeared between the farm and the breakfast table. The figures indicate that the average wealth of each farmer is \$3,333, and the average gross income of each is \$971.

Some farmers are worth more and have larger incomes. This means that others are worth less and have smaller incomes.

We also find that the farmers of the United States owe approaching \$6,000,000,000, some \$3,000,000,000 of which is secured by mortgages on their farms and homes. They pay from 6 per cent. to 20 per cent. per annum interest on this indebtedness, bench fees, commissions, and other charges. The annual interest charge is estimated at \$510,000,000—about  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

This of itself is no small sum to be subtracted from the farmers' earnings. No other industry showing similar assets and liabilities is called on to carry such a burden. The market quotations show that industrial 5 per cent. bonds are selling at par, 6 per cent. at  $102\frac{1}{2}$ , and 4 per cent. at 90; United States refunding 2 per cent. bonds are selling at 96, 3 per cents at par, 100; United States 4 per cent. registered at  $108\frac{1}{2}$  and

coupon 109½, while Panama 3 per cents are quoted at 99. The farmers, with their forty billions of assets, must pay an average of 8½ per cent. on their indebtedness, and are often unable to get money at all for financing their operations. We can marshal the collective resources of those engaged in agriculture, make the mobilized resources a basis for credit, adjust the credit machinery so as to cut that interest in half.

We might as well own the truth and examine the conditions from a common-sense standpoint and deal with the situation in a practical way.

There is real and pressing need for the betterment of rural conditions, making country life more attractive, agriculture more remunerative, giving financial aid suited to the needs of agriculture, and improving business methods, which should be put into practice. \* \* \* Some elements involved we cannot control. The seasons and the great laws and forces of nature we cannot alter. The Department of Agriculture has done much for the farmer, by helping him to combat the diseases which beset his animals and plants, by pointing out the best methods of selecting seed, and planting, cultivating, and handling his crops; in road building, housing, caring for and using his produce, employing machinery, and even in marketing his surplus. It is also demonstrating how he can increase his yield and giving him the results of scientific experiments to his great advantage. This national work is most helpful in supplying a part of the remedies needed.

Even if we could do nothing more than reduce materially the enormous burden of exorbitant interest and charges now borne by the farmers, we should enable them to save some \$250,000,000 every year.

I am thoroughly satisfied such relief can be provided for by the commission bill, S. 4246, and in its modified form No. 7184—now pending—as the result of research in European countries, where the people have been obliged to meet and solve the problems with which we are just now face to face, and the studies of the United States Commission on Rural Credits in co-operation with the American commission under the act of March 3, 1913.

Such a plan is feasible and highly desirable. It contemplates the establishment of a system of farm-mortgage banks,

under Government supervision. This is a field for Federal legislation—the problem is a national one.

While the subject of rural credits is not absolutely new in this country, reference to it in the past never received serious attention. There was no systematic or effective effort to make the subject understood. Of course, until that happened, there could be no intelligent legislative action.

American students and representatives in foreign countries had pointed out that the United States had made no suitable financial provision for the agriculturist, but that was as far as we got until early in 1912, literature issued by the International Institute of Agriculture and correspondence with the American delegate, Mr. David Lubin, induced the Southern Commercial Congress to take up the matter with him and later with the State Department and President Taft. The Southern Commercial Congress invited Mr. Lubin to address our fourth annual convention at Nashville, and obtained leave of absence for him, and he accepted on condition that we assemble representatives from the various States a week prior to the convention and devote that time to a thorough study of the subject. Twenty-seven States sent their representatives to that conference. Mr. Lubin addressed the convention, and a resolution was adopted calling on the Southern Commercial Congress to undertake to assemble a commission to be composed of two selected men from each State to go to Europe and investigate, on the ground the various systems there in operation primarily intended to benefit agriculture. We took the subject up with the governors of the various States and with the farmers' organizations throughout the country, receiving a general indorsement of the plan. A joint resolution was passed by Congress and signed by the President accrediting such commission to foreign Governments. The agricultural bill was later passed containing provisions for a Federal commission of seven to be appointed by the President "to cooperate with the American commission assembled under the auspices of the Southern Commercial Congress." On April 26, 1913, we assembled in New York the American commission, composed of two men from each of thirty-five States and four Canadian Provinces, and these, together with five of the United States commission, sailed for Rome, where they were



received by the King and Queen of Italy at the home of the International Institute of Agriculture. Plans were made through the delegates to the Institute, which is participated in by fifty-two nations, under treaty, for a tour of fourteen European countries. The commissions were aided by every facility the various Governments could and did offer, and returned home July 28, 1913. As chairman of the American commission and also chairman of the United States commission, I feel that, in common fairness to them and to their work there, I should refer to these facts. Full justice to these public-spirited, capable agencies would necessitate a more detailed statement than I shall offer. The former made report to the governors of the various States and the latter to Congress. The evidence collected and data gathered from all these countries will be found printed in Senate Document No. 214, parts 1, 2, and 3, which is the most complete, authoritative, and instructive publication on the subject in print anywhere. A supplement to it is given as "Observations of the American Commission," Senate Document No. 261, part 2.

It would not be possible now, and probably never will be again, to avail ourselves of the opportunity for obtaining the information and collecting the valuable material furnished in that document.

The United States Commission, after a careful study of all this material, including the laws of the various countries, and conditions in the United States, prepared its report to Congress, known as Senate Document No. 380, parts 1, 2, and 3. The report, including the bill desired, was presented to the House by Congressman Moss, a member of the commission (H. R. 12585), and to the Senate by myself (S. 4246) on January 29, 1913, except that part 3, "Personal or short-term credit," was not presented until March 13, 1914. The bill was referred to the Banking and Currency Committees, respectively. They appointed sub-committees on rural credits, and these met in joint session for the purpose of giving hearings, and carefully considering the whole subject. They devoted much time and intelligent study to the question, and at the close of these hearings the sub-committee drafted and presented a bill which contains the main features of the commission bill S. 4246 (H. R. 12585), with some additional feat-

ures, and that bill has likewise been referred to the Committees on Banking and Currency and is S. 5542 (H. R. 16478).

The whole country has been interested as rarely before on any measure, and a realizing sense of the importance of and the need for the legislation is nation wide.

The platforms of all three political parties contained pledges in behalf of the movement. President Wilson, as was President Taft, is in full sympathy with the efforts which have been put forth, and which I am certain are to result in effective and beneficial legislation. Nearly one-third of the President's great address to Congress on December 2, 1913, was devoted to this question, and in this he said, among other things:—

"I present to you, in addition, the urgent necessity that special provision be made also for facilitating the credits needed by the farmers of the country. \* \* \* The farmers, of course, ask and should be given no special privilege, such as extending to them the credit of the Government itself. What they need and should obtain is legislation which will make their own abundant and substantial credit resources available as a foundation for joint, concerted local action in their own behalf in getting the capital they must use. It is to this we should now address ourselves.

"It has, singularly enough, come to pass that we have allowed the industry of our farms to lag behind the other activities of the country in its development. I need not stop to tell you how fundamental to the life of the Nation is the production of its food. \* \* \* We must add the means by which the farmer may make his credit constantly and easily available, and command when he will the capital by which to support and expand his business. We lag behind many other great countries of the modern world in attempting to do this. Systems of rural credit have been studied and developed on the other side of the water, while we left our farmers to shift for themselves in the ordinary money market. You have but to look about you in any rural district to see the result, the handicap, and embarrassment which have been put upon those who produce our food.

"Conscious of this backwardness and neglect on our part, the Congress recently authorized the creation of a special commission to study the various systems of rural credit which have been put in operation in Europe, and this commission is already prepared to report. Its report ought to make it easier for us to determine what methods will be best suited to our own farmers."



Hitherto our financial system has been exclusively intended to serve the capitalist, merchant, manufacturer, and those engaged in industries other than agriculture. It is no wonder that it has been found incomplete as well as discriminating in its operations.

Under that system, created, supervised, and controlled by the Government, there was a direct, express prohibition against accepting real estate as security for loans, and we must agree with the farmer that he not only was not taken care of, but was absolutely discriminated against, because real estate has always been his chief asset. The one main resource of the 12,000,000 farmers in this country was stricken down by the law as a basis for credit. It is really astonishing that for fifty years we have neglected to provide any financial system to meet the needs of agriculture. It is more astounding when we think that the system we did establish made objectionable and unavailable for credit purposes, to a very large extent at least, their \$40,000,000,000 worth of resources. The result might have been expected. It should have long ago been corrected. But for the quantity and quality of our lands adapted to agriculture we would have experienced a depression in this country and a high living cost which would have meant distress and national weakness beyond comprehension.

I hope it is not too late to remedy by legislation this discouragement of agricultural interests with all its evil and disastrous consequences, whose beginning we must already recognize, as it appears that:—

(a) Production is not keeping pace with the increase in population.

(b) The number of tenants are increasing and occupying owners decreasing. The census shows that in 1880, 25 per cent. of all American farms were operated by tenants; in 1890 this percentage has increased to 28, and in 1900 to 35 per cent.

(c) The tendency is away from the farms and toward the cities and towns.

(d) Our exports of foodstuffs are relatively decreasing, while our imports are increasing, as, for instance, we are already importing beef and even corn from Argentina; our farmers are paying higher rates of interest than those engaged in any other industry.



(f) Our farmers are unable to obtain financial accommodation except upon very burdensome terms.

(g) Agriculture does not advance and is losing spirit, and its products will soon not equal the home demand, greatly increasing the cost of living.

The objects to be gained by the proposed legislation now pending are:—

(1) Securing cheaper money for the farmer. This will lessen his burdens directly, and to a larger extent indirectly, since the farmer requires capital just as those engaged in other industries require it.

(2) Providing sufficient financial accommodation on terms he can meet as to interest and payments to carry on his business and acquire and improve his home. This will increase his earnings.

(3) Enabling the farmer to liquidate past indebtedness out of his earnings, which must be from the soil and dependent on the seasons, as his returns come in. This will make it possible for him to improve his home and increase production.

This system will contemplate only an agricultural business. The farm-land bank will do no commercial business and therefore not compete with the commercial bank. The fundamental principles involved are:—

(1) Making the collective resources of a community available to meet credit requirements through the medium of bonds issued against mortgages on land. The asset of the farmer is thus made liquid.

(2) Allowing the reduction of the principal by instalment payments, such as the borrower can meet, known as amortization. In this way principal and interest will be paid in full, without excessive demands and within the time it is possible to earn the amount of the obligation.

The bill provides that ten or more persons can organize a national farm-land bank in any given State. Such bank can issue land-bank bonds against mortgages in that State. General powers are given, with restrictions. Such bonds may be used as (1) security for deposit of postal savings fund, (2) as investment for funds accumulated as time deposits in na-

tional banks, (3) as investment for trust funds under certain conditions. One hundred thousand dollars is to be the minimum capital for the institution issuing the bonds; the volume of bonds shall not exceed fifteen times the capital, nor the aggregate of the mortgages.

A bureau in the Treasury Department is created for supervising the operations of these banks, with a commissioner of farm-land banks as the head and a deputy commissioner assisting. Annual report to Congress must be made. Plans, rules, and regulations to govern the bureau are to be approved and promulgated by the Secretary of the Treasury. Our banking system now, as heretofore, is a commercial system. The system proposed is not. I should prefer the two systems be kept separate and distinct as far as possible.

The commissioner must publish amortization tables, which must be used in all long-term mortgages. Provision is made for co-operative institutions where desired. \* \* \* Mr. Fletcher then discusses the powers, restrictions and special limitations for these institutions, and then goes on to say:—

A separate and distinct system along the lines indicated will mean more homes, more development, and improvement of the farms, more production, better rural conditions, and increased prosperity generally.

Primarily the great benefit will be to agriculture, but as we must all look in that direction for food and clothing, the benefit will extend to all the people. Whatever will make attractive country life, reduce the burdens and difficulties which confront the farmers, will stimulate business and increase financial operations in all directions, and I am sure no one should take a narrow or selfish view of this great economic question.

You can readily understand that commercial banks must be in position to respond to their demand liabilities at any time, and therefore they could not safely employ their funds by making loans for any great length of time, but the farmer is not engaged in turning over his stock of goods day by day and depositing the proceeds in bank, thus meeting his obligations at the bank every few days. The farmer has no goods moving in trade which he is able to convert into cash by the time the bills for the goods become due. What the



farmer needs is accommodation for such length of time as will enable him to purchase land, improve it, buy machinery, extend his development and operations over a period of years, meeting as much as he can, out of his earnings, year by year. He should get his accommodation at the rate of interest which will make it an investment rather than a debt. I have letters from various portions of the country which show that in many States the farmers are paying as high as twenty per cent. interest, all the items considered. No business, no manufacturing enterprise, no commercial industry can stand such interest. The truth is that many of the farmers in many States would have been bankrupt long ago if it had not been for the rise in the value of lands. Some critics of this proposal have claimed that this plan is intended to make it easy for farmers to get into debt and people with money to get mortgages on lands, and thus enrich themselves and crush the farmer. This suggestion would have more merit if it were not that, broadly speaking, the farmers of the country are already enormously in debt. We have seen what the statistics show in that regard. No man is more afraid of debt than I am or will go further in warning against incurring it, but I submit that the farmers are already in debt, and that if we can do nothing more than save them one-half of their annual interest, say \$250,000,000 a year, we will be doing a great public service. Furthermore, farmers need to go in debt as much as men engaged in any industry.

Rarely can any important industry be conducted on a strictly hand-to-month, cash basis, with any great success. The truth is, one of the great needs is for the farmer to adopt and apply more fully and completely, business methods in connection with his industry. Every business man is obliged to incur debts. Of course he has assets and resources which can always be applied to meeting these debts as they become due, but the very debt enables him to increase his assets and develop his resources, so necessarily the farmer, on an important and large scale, cannot expect to conduct his enterprise strictly on a cash basis, nor is it to his interest always to do so. What we want is a financial system which will enable him to get accommodations on such terms as in the natural and orderly course of his business and industry he will be able to



discharge without danger and without hardship. Some claim that it proposes to prevent the farmer from using the present banking system. This is not true at all. What is proposed is a system supplementary and additional to the present system.

President Taft said in his letter to the governors of the States, October 11, 1912:—

“The need for the establishment of an adequate financial system as an aid to the farmers of this country is now quite generally recognized.”

President Wilson gave out August 13, 1913, this statement:—

“Special machinery and a distinct system of banking must be provided for if rural credits are to be successfully and adequately supplied. \* \* \* There is no subject more important to the welfare or the industrial development of the United States. \* \* \* There has been too little Federal legislation framed to serve the farmer directly and with a deliberate adjustment to his real needs. \* \* \* This is our next great task. Not only is a Government commission about to report, which is charged with apprising the Congress with the best methods yet employed in this matter, but the Department of Agriculture also has undertaken a serious and systematic study of the whole problem of rural credits. The Congress and the Executive working together will certainly afford the needed machinery of relief and prosperity to the people of the countryside, and that very soon.”

The conference of governors held last November in Madison, Wis., approved in general the work and plan of the United States commission.

The Secretary of Agriculture, in his report for 1914, page 26, says:—

“Closely related to production and distribution of farm products is the securing of capital by farmers on better terms. This problem has attracted the profound attention of the country and still awaits a full solution. \* \* \* The chief difference of opinion arises over whether there should be special aid furnished by the Government. There seems to be no emergency which requires or justifies Government assistance to the farmers directly through the use of the Government cash or the Government's credit. The American farmer is sturdy, independent, and self-reliant. \* \* \* It is the judgment of the best students of economic conditions here that there is needed to supplement existing agencies a

proper land-mortgage banking system, operating through private funds, just as other banking institutions operate, and this judgment is shared by the leaders of economic thoughts abroad."

The commission said in its report (Senate Document 380):—

"It has been convinced that not only was Government aid unnecessary but that it would be unwise."

In this Lubin, Herrick, and other authorities agree.

The governors' conference at Madison, Wis., November 10, 1914, adopted a report which said:—

"The establishing of a wise, just, or successful system of land-mortgage banks can be accomplished without direct Federal aid, without subsidies or loans."

Let me in conclusion bring home to you by concrete illustration precisely what it is hoped will be accomplished by the establishment of such a financial system as the commission strongly urges. Take the Danish Mortgage Society law. Members of the company (farmers) under that law, on loans made by them respectively, pay a yearly amount of 4 per cent. interest, three-quarters of one per cent. amortization—that is, in reduction of principal—and one-quarter of one per cent. for expenses, making altogether 5 per cent. per annum, with the result that in forty-seven years their debt (principal and interest) is paid in full. Whatever the amount of the loan, whether \$1,000 or \$10,000, they have the use of the money; they pay 5 per cent. per annum for that use, and at the end of forty-seven years the entire debt (principal and interest) is paid in full. Contrast that with the experience of the American farmer. If he borrows \$1,000 or \$10,000, he will have to, in the first place, agree to pay it back within three to five years. He will pay 8 per cent. per annum interest for the use of it, and at the time when it becomes due he must pay the entire principal as well. Can there be any question about the advantages of the Danish system? The same principle applies under the German system. Take another illustration. Under the system practised in these European countries we will suppose that a farmer borrows \$1,000. Suppose he wishes to liquidate the entire indebtedness in eighteen years. The first year he would pay \$40 on

the principal and \$40 on interest. The second year he would pay \$41.80 on the principal and \$38.40 on interest, and so on, until in eighteen years he would have paid \$1,440, and the entire debt, principal and interest, would be paid in full. Under our present system only the interest of 8 per cent. would be paid, \$80 per annum, and the principal at the end of the eighteen years of \$1,000 would still be due. In this case the borrower would pay 4 per cent. interest on his money, and the other 4 per cent. would go toward the principal and his debt, under the European system, would be cancelled.

Take another illustration. Suppose a farmer wishes to borrow \$1,000, and he was willing to pay as much as 6 per cent. annually for the use of it. Under the European system he would pay 4 per cent. as interest and 2 per cent. toward a sinking fund or amortization. In twenty-eight annual payments he would have paid \$1,680, the interest which he would pay would be at the rate of 2.43 per cent. per annum. In twenty-eight years he would have paid the entire debt by paying \$60 per annum, which would be at 6 per cent. on \$1,000. Under existing conditions in this country he would have paid that amount, if he could get his money at 6 per cent. and at the end of twenty-eight years he would still owe \$1,000. Almost any farmer could make more than \$60 a year by the use of \$1,000, but the farmers of this country could rarely afford to borrow money or incur indebtedness on the terms and at the rates which they are obliged to meet now under our existing financial system, and no commercial banking system alone can afford them the proper accommodations. I want to see the farmers organize in their various communities, establish their local co-operative societies, and in this way take charge of their business matters, buy their supplies on the best possible terms, market their products in the best way, and finance their affairs in the most advantageous manner.

The American commission with the United States commission called on the governors of the various States to appoint committees of three to prepare a brief statement as to the "agricultural needs of the State," and the result is shown in part 3 of Senate Document 214, which tells the story of the intense interest in the various States in this great question.



## SOME NATIONAL OBLIGATIONS.

BY ROBERT M. THOMPSON, PRESIDENT OF THE NAVY LEAGUE.

There exists in this country a strong propaganda, supported by ample funds, which preaches the doctrine that this country should not prepare itself to resist invasion. Several patriotic societies, especially the Navy League of the United States, teach that it is the duty of the government and the duty of every citizen to see to it that the country be adequately prepared.

There are two alternatives: This country may be invaded; or it may not. If the doctrines of the pacifists prevail, and if the country be invaded, can any one estimate the suffering, the horror, the loss which must ensue? If, on the other hand, we make preparation, and invasion never comes, what happens? We spend some money among our own people. What do we do when we insure our houses, or our property? We pay our premiums. If the property be not destroyed, have we lost anything? No! We get what we paid for—insurance. So, if we sufficiently prepare, we lose nothing as long as peace is insured.

But the pacifists will tell you that we are being called upon to pay enormous sums which if continued or increased must bankrupt the country.

What have we been spending on our army and navy? On the navy we spend annually something less than we spend for tires for our automobiles and about as much as we do for Ford cars. On the army we spend much less than we do for chewing gum! And the two states of Massachusetts and New York have licensed more chauffeurs than there are soldiers and sailors in the army and navy of the United States! We have not always spent our money wisely. We might have got more for it than we have, but we *have got* first-class samples of what a navy and army ought to be. If we spend on our navy three-fourths of the sum that is annually spent for automobiles, war in this country would become

unthinkable, for we could then hold the seas against any navy now in existence.

If we spent on our army what we spend on moving pictures the insurance would be complete. No nation, or combination of nations, would care to attack us. We might pursue our way in peace and quiet, attacking no one, and standing in fear of no one.

The situation which confronts us to-day is, that our navy is not adequate to hold the sea against the navies of at least two other nations; that either one of these European nations could in two weeks after it had driven our war ships from the sea, land on our shores an army of 300,000,—fully armed, equipped and supplied,—and within a month could re-inforce this army with another of like strength. Our problem, then, is to so strengthen our navy as to be able to hold the sea against any possible invasion, or to create an army capable of meeting the invaders and driving them back before they could be re-inforced.

At the next session the question of national defense will be presented to Congress, and the leading men of both parties will support the President and advocate adequate preparation. But there will be opposition, futile and foolish, which must and will waste precious hours.

President Wilson, in his speech before the Manhattan Club in New York, said:—

"I would not feel that I was discharging the solemn obligation I owe the country were I not to speak in terms of deepest solemnity of the *urgency* and necessity of preparing ourselves."

He laid great emphasis on the question of national defense as being *urgent*, and urgent it is.

The terrible convulsion now raging in Europe insures us from attack for a time, but this war must come to an end. Many people argue that the nations, exhausted by their efforts, will be in no condition and will be unwilling to engage in another war; but that is not the lesson that history teaches us. After four years of bitter conflict, when our Civil War came to an end, immediately we sent an army to the borders of Mexico and served notice upon the country, then supposed to be the strongest military power in the world, that if they did not withdraw their troops from Mexico we would fight.

Many people cannot see any reason why we should be attacked by any of the nations at the close of the present war, but is there any one who has followed the discussions in the newspapers who can believe that any of the European nations, with the exception of Belgium, can have for us any friendly feeling? Throughout their war we have stood for our own interests, as we had a right to do, but constantly our interest has collided and interfered, first with one, and then another of the contending parties. While they have given their sons to slaughter and their property to destruction we have stood by and profited by their misfortune. If this war continues for two years more we will either be creditors of Europe to an enormous extent, or we will have absorbed all the gold of the world.

If peace follow the complete victory of one side or the other, the losers will have to pay an enormous war indemnity, and if we remain in our present defenseless condition the easiest way for them to pay would be to draw bills of exchange on us for the amount and notify us that if we did not pay the bills they would come over and make us pay them, and, shameful as the confession is, if to-day either one of the warring groups in Europe were to serve such notice on us, the only thing to do would be to pay the bills, if it took the last dollar in gold we have, for valuable as is the credit machine which rests on gold, more valuable are the lives that would be lost in a struggle useless if made in our existing conditions.

The people as a whole should strive to make National Defense, National Service, National Preparedness, National Safety First the rule of our national life.

They cannot do this without sacrifice. Some must pay in cash, some must pay in service. Do we really care for our country? Do we believe in democracy? If we do, the sacrifices will be made cheerfully; but, if government of the people, by the people, and for the people is not to perish from this earth, the sacrifices must be made.



## THE TRAINING OF THE VOICE.

BY HERBERT WITHERSPOON.

We have great need of a proper medium for the training of our singers so as to make them *artists*, and not merely the makers of more or less agreeable noises.

This training should entail not only the teaching of voice culture as such, but also of languages, our own as well as foreign tongues; the theory of music as applied to vocal music in all its branches, tradition, style, study and analysis of the various schools of composition, acting and stage deportment, fencing, dancing; in short, all the practical and esthetic parts that go to make a true artist's education.

The art of the singer has changed, both in its requirements and mode of acquiring perfection during the past fifty years. Through our scientific and medical men in America, notably Dr. Holbrook Curtis, we have learned much about the human voice never before known, not to speak of all the contributors to this fund of knowledge since the invention of the laryngoscope by Garcia!

The old hit or miss methods have given way to a demand for more exact modes of procedure both from teacher and pupil, and there have been endless discussion and argument over endless details of physiological action of the vocal organs. The result has been confusion worse confounded, principally caused by an exaggerated view of the material and physical, and a corresponding diminution of the importance of the purely psychological and artistic. Local effort has been the rule and the problem to be solved by the unthinking and thinking alike, and general impulse and activity have been to a great extent forgotten. The voice has been made a machine with a machine impulse behind it, instead of a physical medium with a psychological impulse behind it for the portrayal of emotion, the most directly appealing medium any art possesses.

It has seemed advisable, therefore, to go back to the methods of the old school of teaching in vogue during the

eighteenth century, when, if we can believe history, the greatest singers the world has ever seen and heard delighted their audiences, and add to their practices the really valuable knowledge given us by modern science. It is a curious fact that, save for the added authority our learned men have given to the matter of the correct mode of breathing and breath control, most of the valuable matter concerns the study and practice of phonetics, which is in no way a direct method of local control of the vocal organs, but an improved and more exact psychological control through the medium speech sounds.

This combination of the two methods of training the voice has produced most interesting results, and it would seem that with this combination every fault could in time be remedied, even mediocre voices being made so agreeable as to assure to their owners careers as singers and teachers.

Our singers should be given a good musical and artistic education. Any one who reads the lives of the great singers or the era of the real "Bel Canto" will be amazed to find what an enormous amount of study and hard work was made obligatory. Yet our aspirants for a singer's career expect to make successes after two or three vocal lessons per week, with little or no knowledge gained.

We must, therefore, if we expect to bring back the halcyon days of vocal art, give to our singers not only voice training, and that ordered according to the old ideas of frequent or daily lessons through the aid of assistants, as the old masters worked; but we must train their minds and ears by special exercises, by lectures on all important topics and art subjects, and more than that, on the correct manner of living, the care of the body, on the value of proportion, on color as illustrated in painting. Our aspirants, in short, must be given an esthetic education calculated to make them refined and thinking men and women, capable of judging between the beautiful and the ugly; ambitious to attain and live up to an artistic ideal, after they have learned how to form a concept of their own perhaps original ideal!

The field is wide and workers are few, but I firmly believe the renovation of vocal art will take place right here in America, where the voice is loved as an instrument as well as a

medium for dramatic expression, and where the people love beautiful tone.

But let us get back to the *art* of singing, and not merely to the machinery of the voice. Let us help stimulate the young to the formation of an artistic ideal and remind them that the first element of beautiful singing is the beautiful tone, the real "Bel Canto," which can be acquired in more or less perfection by every one gifted with a good voice. The singing of the last ten years has to a large extent been a nightmare of shouting and screaming, politely called declamation, but in reality a travesty on the art.

The use of the *sotto voce* has been so completely lost that I could not name three singers now before the public who even know how it is made. Perfect breath control is conspicuous by its absence, and in its place we hear audible gasping for air, shortened or broken phrases, with a corresponding loss of all repose and legato, false intonation, lack of flexibility, yet we have only to read the simple and easily understood writings of the old school to know that the basis of their teaching was management of the breath.

We have much to thank the scientific men for, and I appreciate their work to the full, but all they know is worth nothing without the tenets of the old school, particularly those concerning the management of the breath, and I hope the rest of my life may be given, and I intend it shall be given, to do my little part to bring back the lost beauties of the most generally beloved of all the arts.



## THE PROFESSOR AND THE TRUSTEES.

BY JOHN S. P. TATLOCK.

The last two years have been a time of especial searchings of heart among men interested in American universities, their ideals and tendencies. December, 1914, saw the formation in New York of the Association of American University Professors, to promote co-operation and the free exchange of opinion among the custodians of academic ideals. One of its functions (rare, it is to be hoped) will be the investigation of flagrant violations of the right to freedom of speech and personal independence among professors. As if to signalize this foundation, there have been wars and rumors of wars in universities. Within two years there have been several striking cases of this sort in at least four institutions from the White to the Rocky Mountains. Though there may be no more danger now than formerly, we have become more conscious of it. A German academic visitor to this country a few years ago is said to have found three sexes—men, women and professors—hardly a gratifying disclosure to his cis-Atlantic colleagues. On the other hand, in no country are professors more readily listened to by the people. There is a certain indeterminate fluidity in their status, which those who value the dignity of the profession would like to see a little more fixed and on a higher plane. It needs a wise and enlightened professionalism. The university is one of the great supporters of ideality in a rushing practical commercial society; it has taken over part of the function of the church, and speaks with some of the church's former authority. It behooves society to guard and exalt its universities.

What is a university? What element in it determines its character, standing, traditions? What forms the continuity from decade to decade which is the essential of individuality, in men and institutions? Not the students, who are entirely renewed every four years or so, and sometimes change their

tone faster yet; and, after all, social protoplasm is much the same everywhere. Not the trustees, regents, corporation, who work unseen. Who but the faculty, which is as conspicuous (perhaps not quite!) as the students and as permanent as the trustees? They do the work for which the university is supposed to exist. They advance knowledge, and pass it on. It is they who draw the earnest student to one university rather than another, give the idler something at least to carry with him for the rest of his days, and weed out the incorrigible. Who but the faculty determine whether a university shall be a paradise of athletics (as Adams Hill, of Harvard, used to say), a glorified normal and technical school, a gentlemen's club, or a center of intellectual activity and fertility? The appointment of professors is the most important function which the president and trustees perform; getting money for buildings is not, unless the chief duty of the individual man in his visit to his tailor. As nearly as one can put it in five words, a university is its faculty.

Nothing can be more important, therefore, than the relation between the faculty and the trustees, the men who do the work of the university and those who hold the ultimate power. Are the professors in an ordinary sense the employees of the trustees? It is natural that the world should incline to take this view of the relation. The trustees are often heads of big businesses who have won success through conceiving and working out an idea and knowing how to choose subordinates to execute the details. But enlightened trustees, men of high education and ability, who take time from their personal affairs to devote to the good of learning and society, know better. The two cases are not parallel. It is rather the professors who have the knowledge and experience in education and scholarship that enable them not only to execute details but also to conceive and work out the idea. In the most distinguished universities the trustees find ways and means, times and seasons, adjustments and equipment, to carry out the ideals of the most far-seeing of the professors. Even in the most democratic society power must be centered somewhere. In this case the final power is with the trustees, in order to ensure a bird's-eye view, a dispassionate view, of matters on which local feeling may run high, to unite the



control of finance and appointments, and to satisfy benefactors that their gifts will be administered by men with large experience in finance; but this does not constitute the appointees of the trustees their employees. As has recently been well said in this connection by another, the judges of the United States Supreme Court are not the employes, though they are the appointees, of the President of the republic. They are the custodians of our governmental traditions, they ensure that freedom shall slowly broaden down from precedent to precedent, as professors do in a far lesser field. In the English Church a rector may be selected by the wardens and vestrymen, but his tenure of office is not dependent on their pleasure, and he is in no sense regarded as their employe; the relation is similar between the bishop and certain rectors in the Roman Catholic Church. This is enough to show that those who discharge the most fundamental and essential function in an organization, though they may be appointed and even perhaps dismissed by another branch of the organization, are not to be regarded as the mere underlings of those other officers. In other words, a university is not a hierarchy, with the professors bossing the students and the corporation bossing the professors, and with individuals rising through the lower grades to the higher. The trustees exist for the sake of enabling the professors to benefit the students and to add to the world's knowledge. Corporation and faculty are each serving the other, just as they co-operate in serving society.

I have been speaking of ideals. But we have this treasure in earthen vessels. Some trustees will continue to magnify and abuse their power, just as some professors will continue to be irresponsible. But, after all, antagonisms and misunderstandings are oftener due to a conflict of ideals and definitions than to anything else. We are so prone to assume without thought that other people's conceptions and standards and purposes are the same as our own! It never occurs to us that ours are not the only ones possible. How many controversies would fall flat did we but realize this! How often are our views warped and our progress thwarted by false analogies! The teachers in our public schools are doing a more important work than our professors, a work similar in many ways; yet their position with reference to the school boards is far



from wholly analogous to the professors toward the trustees. There is no reason why school boards should not be qualified to select teachers and policies unaided; the average intelligent man is qualified to judge of elementary education. But the professor is in a special and technical region. On university professors the world largely depends for the extension of its knowledge, the driving farther and farther of the twilight border which separates our world from the infinite unknown. The important relation of this function to the other, that of imparting the higher learning, would take too long to enter upon here; but this function fully as much as the other must determine the relation of the professor to the trustees.

## OUR NATIVE DRAMA.

BY ARTHUR H. QUINN, PH.D.

In the field of American literature much significant work, from both the historical and the critical points of view, remains to be done. A great part of our historical writing on the subject has been limited to biographical details, with too little attention given to the interrelation of American History and American Literature, the careful tracing of literary movements, and the development of literary forms. From the critical standpoint it is hard to steer the proper course between undue emphasis on national excellencies and the apologetic attitude which is taken by some of our critics, and which is developed by too great a dependence upon the critical judgments of English writers who are often unacquainted with the material discussed. It is hoped that the time is coming when we can treat our native literature in an independent spirit, without, however, losing sight of relative values.

Within this general field my special interest just now is directed toward our native drama, especially in that period which lies before the Civil War. This field has been unduly neglected, partly due to the difficulty in obtaining copies of the plays. The work of Thomas Godfrey, Royall Tyler, William Dunlap, John Howard Payne, James Nelson Barker, Robert Montgomery Bird, Richard Penn Smith, Nathaniel Parker Willis, Epes Sargeant, Robert T. Conrad, Anna Ogden Mowatt and George Henry Boker, to mention only a few of the leaders, is of distinct importance, not only on account of the merit of the plays themselves, but also in several cases on account of their representation of American life.

Members of the Institute may be interested in one typical instance which represents the difficulties under which workers in this field are laboring. Robert Montgomery Bird, a Philadelphia dramatist, wrote between 1830 and 1834 several significant plays which were acted with distinct success by Edwin Forrest. Among these the most important are "The

Gladiator," "Oralloosa" and "The Broker of Bogota." These plays have never been published, and while "The Gladiator" has been played within comparatively recent times, the other two plays have not been produced for many years. After a vigorous search in various directions, the original manuscripts were found in the possession of Mr. Robert Montgomery Bird, a grandson of the dramatist, and shortly before this time copies of "The Broker of Bogota" and "Oralloosa" were also located in the Edwin Forrest Home near Philadelphia. What is perhaps of most interest, the reasons for the failure to publish these important plays, have come to light. Correspondence showed that both Dr. Bird and his son were anxious to publish his dramatic works, but that Edwin Forrest, who held the copyrights, absolutely refused to allow them to be published, doubtless fearing some financial loss to himself. He had acted the plays hundreds of times in this country, and in the case of "The Gladiator," in England, and he wished to keep such valuable dramatic properties for himself alone. In view of the credit that is usually given to Forrest for encouraging American playwrights these facts are somewhat illuminating.

Similar instances in the cases of other dramatists could easily be presented to account in part for the lack of just treatment of our earlier drama. The widespread interest that is now being taken in all matters connected with the theatre will, it is hoped, cause a revival of the study of our earlier playwrights. If in some way the masterpieces of the early drama could be reproduced so that one could study their actual effect upon the stage, much more could be accomplished. A start was made in this direction by the reproduction of the first American play, Thomas Godfrey's "The Prince of Parthia" (1767), by students of the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia, on March 26th, 1915. It would be very interesting, for example, to see "The Contrast" of Royall Tyler, the first American comedy; Dunlap's "André"; Barker's "Superstition"; Smith's "The Triumph at Plattsburg," all plays dealing with American themes, or, in fact, any of Bird's or Boker's plays.

Students of our drama in the period after the Civil War could be helped materially if our living playwrights would



publish their plays more frequently. The unfortunate loss of the manuscripts of Mr. Herne's "Griffith Davenport" and "Margaret Fleming" should be a warning to all dramatists that the significant plays should be published while it is possible to do so. Mr. Thomas, Mr. MacKaye and Mrs. Marks have set good examples in this respect, and for the sake of the future historians of the drama it is hoped that the day will come when an important play will be published as a matter of course.

Revivals of plays like Mr. Fitch's "The Truth," which was recently presented by Miss Grace George, should also be encouraged. Who would not welcome an opportunity to see such plays as "Saratoga" or "The Banker's Daughter" or "Shenandoah" of Mr. Howard; "Sag Harbor" or "Shore Acres" of Mr. Herne; "Held by the Enemy" of Mr. Gillette; "Alabama" or "Arizona" by Mr. Thomas, given by first-class companies? The serious student of the drama wishes not only to see a play, but to see it more than once, under varying circumstances, and to then read it in order that its real significance may be understood. Surely if the drama represents the real life of a people, it should not perish after a year or so of success or be relegated to the mercies of a cheap stock company. I have not the slightest doubt that the plays which made the eighties and nineties noteworthy could still be reproduced with artistic and financial success.

## MODERN BOTANY.

BY MELVILLE T. COOK, PH.D.,

PROFESSOR OF PLANT PATHOLOGY IN RUTGERS COLLEGE.

When we pause long enough to realize the necessity of plant life to all animal life, to realize that we are dependent on plant life either directly or indirectly for practically all our food and clothing, our fuel, most of our drugs and much of our building material, we wonder why this important science has not received more attention. This is readily answered by the fact that nature is lavish with her products and has supplied man abundantly in response to a minimum effort on his part. But with the cessation of long wars, the overcoming of plagues and the increase in population, it becomes necessary to increase the supply of plant products and those products which are dependent on plants. This has led to remarkable changes in botany as an educational subject within the past quarter of a century.

Many people still look upon botany as purely an esthetical science; a science involving the grouping of plants and playing with Latin names; a science for the study of flowers; a science for the faddist; a science for Sunday afternoon strolls. But if we go back in the history of the subject, we find that it has been very closely allied with the medical profession; first, because the practice of medicine gave many a true science, a living and at the same time enabled him to pursue a kindered science for the love of knowledge.

In the early history of botany as an educational subject, worthy of recognition in our colleges and universities, the courses consisted almost or entirely of studies in classification. But within the past quarter of a century the changes have been many and pronounced. We now find courses in general botany, taxonomy, mycology, morphology, physiology, etc., in many of our institutions of higher education. Much of this development has been due to the renewed interest in botany as

a cultural subject, but much of it has been due to the rise of vocational education.

The development of vocational education has given rise to several branches of vocation; botany, of which the following may be considered most important; horticulture, forestry, pharmaceutical botany, plant breeding and plant pathology.

It is to this last subject that the writer wishes to call the attention of his readers. Diseases of plants attracted the attention of the earliest students of nature and we find them mentioned in the Bible, and in the early writings of the Greeks and Romans. Laws were enacted for the control of plant diseases as early as 1660, but no very great progress was made until the nineteenth century.

The settlement of new parts of the world and the migration of mankind from place to place led to the carrying of desirable economic plants from place to place. These plants carried organisms of disease which frequently became more destructive in their new homes than in the localities from which they came. Among the striking examples of this are the mildew on the grape and the mildew on the gooseberry carried from America to Europe, the asparagus rust and the hollyhock rust brought from Europe to America, and the chestnut bark disease introduced into America from Europe.

Gradually, the progressive agriculturists came to know that we were not only suffering losses from these very conspicuous diseases but that we were also suffering heavy losses from many other very common but less prominent diseases. We know now that these losses in the United States alone run into the unknown and untold hundreds of millions of dollars per year. And there are many who believe that he who saves the growing crops and aids in bringing them to the harvest is doing as much good in the world as those who are making such great claims for great discoveries in plant life.

The progress of the science of plant pathology was necessarily delayed until the perfection of the microscope. It was then necessary to go through a period of the study of causal organisms before any very great progress could be made in the control of plant diseases. The first conspicuous effort in the control of plant diseases was in the latter part of the last century. But since that time very rapid progress has



been made in the control of the diseases of fruits; the work with the diseases of truck crops comes second, field crops third, forest and shade trees fourth and ornamental plants fifth. Apparatus for the control of plant diseases is now as essential for success as any other farm implements.

Although plant pathology is one of the vocational branches of botany, it is none the less scientific in all its bearing, and the demand is much greater for men thoroughly trained in the fundamental scientific principles of the subject than at any time in the past.

No doubt some of my readers will ask why this subject has not attracted more attention from the laymen. The question is easily answered. Because the plant pathologist does not build monuments. The results of his work are distributed over the country, a little here and a little there and does not carry the label of the originator. The engineer builds a Brooklyn Bridge or Panama Canal, and although the actual value in dollars may be far less than a single discovery in plant pathology, he immediately comes into prominence throughout the country or the world. The discovery and perfection of Bordeaux mixture saves the country untold millions every year and yet how few can give the name of its discoverer.

## NEUTRALITY.

BY THE HONORABLE F. K. PENDLETON.

(Reprinted from *New York Sun*, September 22, 1914.)

Neutrality and the rights of neutrals furnish material very naturally at this time for much and varied expression of opinion in the public press and elsewhere. From much of this it is evident that the purposes and objects of the doctrine of neutrality, as known to international law, are in many instances little understood.

The progress of the struggle for the recognition of the rights of non-combatants in time of war has not been uniform. Powerful belligerents in pursuance of their own immediate purposes have been often ready to give little consideration to the rights or interests of others. The assertion of the rights of neutrals is intended to secure that non-belligerents shall be as little incommoded as possible, and that those in no way involved in the struggle shall not be made to suffer unnecessarily. As has been said, "Neutrality carves out from war a realm of peace." Whatever tends to extend and affirm the sphere of neutrals' rights by just so much restricts and curtails the area of war's injury to mankind at large and the general commerce of the world.

In much that has recently appeared the mistaken notion seems to prevail that neutrality involves the refusal to supply to warring nations the wherewithal to prosecute the struggle as a means for bringing about the cessation of hostilities by rendering their prolongation impossible. The latter is, however, not the purpose of neutrality, and such a course of conduct would be exactly the opposite of neutrality, at it would range neutral nations at once on one side of the controversy.

England, it has been said, is always within a measurable distance of starvation, and if when she is engaged in war neutrals under the guise of neutrality should refuse to supply her with foodstuffs they would thereby put her at the mercy of her enemy. It is true such a course might shorten a war,

but it would do so by virtually an alliance with her opponents as substantial as would be direct military intervention.

The well known writer, Mr. H. G. Wells, has recently issued an appeal to American people to refuse to furnish food supplies to Germany "as a means of destroying militarism." Apart from the inhumanity to innocent women and children, this is not an appeal to neutrality but a frank bid for our participation on the side of the Allies in the existing contest.

It is a well settled canon of international law, and recognized in the President's neutrality proclamation, that neutral citizens are entitled to sell and export to belligerent States as well as to their citizens all products of every kind, subject only to the risk in case of merchandise known as contraband of war to seizure by the other belligerent in transit, a risk, of course, to be borne by the consignor or consignee, as may be determined between them, and probably in final analysis in practice taken care of by insurance and represented in the selling price.

Under the proposals of the London convention the right of seizure of foodstuffs is limited to direct shipments to belligerent ports for belligerent uses, in other words, eliminating the doctrine of ultimate destination. Although the proposal as framed lacks something in clearness, it is unquestionably a long step in advance in the effort to secure and safeguard neutrals' rights.

No neutral government can allow its dominions to be used as a fitting out place for military expeditions on land or sea by one belligerent against another, and it was for failure in this respect that England was held liable in the Alabama claims arbitration. The same principle prohibits the use of neutral territory to collect and furnish information for the use of a belligerent or its ports as harbors of safety for belligerent vessels of war from which to conduct their activities.

With the foregoing limitations true neutrality requires the so far as possible unrestricted commercial intercourse impartially with all belligerents, and it would seem at this juncture to be in our own interest, with large surplus crops to sell, as well as our duty to posterity, to assert the rights of neutrals in their fullest sense.



It has been reported in the public press that France has sought to effect a loan of \$100,000,000 through a New York banking house, the money to be expended in this country in the purchase of supplies. It has also been reported that high authority has expressed the opinion that while American bankers might properly make a loan to a neutral State, such as Switzerland, to do so to one of the belligerents would not be in accord with true or real neutrality. The French proposal really amounts to the sale of goods on credit. The net result of the transaction would have been as far as the two countries were concerned an exchange of surplus products for French promises to pay.

That the sale of our goods is entirely compatible with neutrality has been above pointed out and that we should do so on credit rather than for cash cannot affect the permissibility of the transaction. Whether or not to do so as a business proposition, or for other reasons, presents different questions entirely outside the present discussion.

Aside, however, from the particular feature of the French proposition, is in fact the loan of money to a belligerent state by citizens of a neutral a breach of real neutrality? Loans by neutrals to belligerents have been customary in the past. The most generally accepted modern view is that while loans by the government of a neutral state to a belligerent are prohibited bona fide loans on a commercial basis as distinguished from voluntary contributions by citizens of the neutral state are allowed. The distinction is marked. Making loans is not within the ordinary province of government, while lending by individuals is part of the commerce of the world. Formerly even the government itself of neutral states made loans or sold materials of war to belligerents, especially where there were some prior treaty stipulations, without being held to violate neutrality, and the United States at the time of the Franco-German war of 1870 sold old war material to persons said to be agents of one of the belligerents, and a committee of the Senate held this lawful, even if the persons were known to be such agents or the sales had been direct to the belligerent government where the sales were not intended to benefit a particular belligerent but were made pursuant to a national policy adopted prior to the outbreak of hostilities.

The modern view, however, is as above stated. The floating of a foreign loan is in substance an exchange of money for the obligations of the borrowing state, in other words, the sale of money, ultimately gold or some equivalent; and is there any reason why the rule governing the sale of other commodities should not apply?

To treat all belligerents alike is of the very essence of neutrality. As the requirements of belligerents may differ, a rule which would allow supplying through commercial intercourse the particular needs of one while forbidding furnishing those of another is no neutrality at all, but on the contrary active partisanship, and this is as true when the particular requirement is money as in any other case. One belligerent may be provided with a huge war chest, the other be rich in the accumulated wealth of its people; a rule which would prohibit neutrals furnishing the latter with money in exchange for its promises to pay would range all neutrals on the side of the war chest, and when we consider that it is from neutrals alone outside of its own borders that a belligerent is likely to be able to borrow, might result in putting such belligerent at the mercy of its opponent.

The disability of a belligerent to borrow, if it existed, would inevitably encourage the accumulation of war chests and war material in advance, a situation little likely to make for the peace of the world.

## PROGRESS OF THE PURE FOOD LAW.

BY ALICE LAKEY.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, AMERICAN FOOD LEAGUE.

June 30, 1916, marks the tenth anniversary of the passage of the Food and Drugs Act, the strongest Federal measure ever enacted for the safe-guarding of the nation's food supply. One of the most vital results of the law has been the educational awakening of consumers that has followed, for through a variety of channels, not the least important of which has been that of the daily, weekly and monthly press, the pure food propaganda has been carried on, until to-day one can scarcely find an individual who does not know something of the movement, enough at least to assume a critical attitude to the foods supplied to him. For the home is, after all, the centre of the national life, and whether that home be a mansion with a chef as the presiding genius in the kitchen, or a tiny flat with only a kitchenette attached in which to prepare foods, the food supply remains the all-important question. If any army travels on its stomach the civilian does also, and no man, woman or child can do his work unless the food be properly adapted to the individual. "Feed people right" is the urgent call to-day, and the basic principle of all food preparation is cleanliness. Food must be clean, and it must be prepared under strictly sanitary conditions; this has been an accepted fact for many years. But a new demand has arisen now. Not only must the sanitary conditions be right, but the health of the persons engaged in preparing that food, whether it be in a food factory or in a kitchen, must be right. Food contaminated by infected workers may carry the infection to the consumer, hence one of the first duties of the food official is to safeguard the consumer from this possible infection by a rigid inquiry into the physical condition of the men and women who are handling the food supply. At the annual meeting of state and Federal food officials, held at Berkeley, California, last August, a resolution was passed stating that



the physical examination of all persons that handle food products is essential if the safety of such products can be absolutely assured. The Health Department of New York City took an advanced step when it demanded a physical examination into the health of each of the 100,000 men and women connected with the preparation of food in the hotels and restaurants of the city. Keep the food free from contamination by typhoid carriers and prepare it from fresh materials properly prepared under sanitary conditions if you would safeguard the consumer from the danger of typhoid fever or of ptomaine poisoning. No amount of correct labels on cans will save the consumer from the danger of infection if the food has been prepared under dirty conditions or by unhealthy or unclean workers.

The plans for carrying forward the work of standardizing all foods has been going steadily forward, and it is now suggested that in addition to setting standards for all foods there should also be enacted a series of grades of foods similar to the system now in vogue in many cities of having different grades of milk. In this way the consumer will know exactly what he is buying, just as he now does in ordering milk. The plan is as feasible for one class of foods as for another. The consumer then who cannot afford to buy grade A products will be satisfied with grade B until his purse permits his buying grade A. It is certain that the question of sanitation and of health of the worker is one that should enter into the grading of food products. The writer suggests that a system of licensing food manufacturers to prepare foods of certain grades would be one way of assisting the consumer in his selection of foods. At the present time many consumers purchase foods because they know the brands through advertisements. Until the law against false advertising becomes universal the consumer who is uneducated will continue to buy advertised brands. If now in place of these brands the manufacturer could be known as making certain grades of goods, every grade of goods coming from his factory conforming to a certain standard food which he is licensed to produce, the consumer would have a guide in purchasing now denied to him. Why should a manufacturer object to having his factory licensed for the production of certain grades of foods? If it

was found that he was not living up to his license it would be an easy matter to take it from him. The Government takes away the license of the man who is preparing meat products for interstate trade and fails to live up to the standard set. Why not do the same thing with all food?

It is certain that the dream of a uniform state and National food law can never be realized. But the plan of grading, standardizing and licensing food manufacturers is within the possibilities of food control work.

## ACTIVITIES OF MEMBERS IN

### I. ARTS AND THE DRAMA.

After the completion of the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic at Johns Hopkins Hospital, Mr. Grosvenor Atterbury prepared a paper on "Hospitals and Esthetics," which to the layman, depressed with memories of uninviting wards and dreary private rooms, is full of hope and promise.

"I am vastly interested," says Mr. Atterbury, "in the fact that we have managed to turn the iron window guards into little window greenhouses and that we have achieved open fireplaces and window curtains in the wards; and have even smuggled in quite charming brass andirons and fenders. For while these also are quite obviously details, they appeal to me not only because they are pleasant phenomena in themselves—like crocuses and bobolinks in spring—but because likewise they are signs pregnant with meaning. In this instance, moreover, they serve especially well to introduce the real subject of this paper, 'Hospitals and Esthetics.'

"For while those fundamental requisites which we are so light-heartedly passing by form the crux of what we may call the institutional aspect of the architectural problem of the modern hospital, there is that other side which, though more subtle and difficult to define, is to my mind no less essential, albeit demanding far greater skill to handle satisfactorily. \* \* \* The prime requisite from the esthetic point of view is that these institutional demands, and many others not here mentioned, should be met with complete harmony, without architectural disturbance; that all the various functions—clinical, research, teaching—be so comfortably housed under one roof that they may all present their most agreeable aspect to the stranger who enters their household, to the student and teacher no less than to the patient, in one sense the guest of honor. \* \* \* Architecturally, this means an interior which shall be cheerful but not exciting; varied but without disturbing contrast; roomy but without the large scale that stamps it an institution. In a word, a building expressing that familiar quality of the individual home to a degree sufficient



not only to rob the institution of its tendency to arouse the feeling of strangeness but also to produce if possible a more soothing and agreeable reaction in the patient than in his ordinary lot in life.

"I think it safe to say that no one expects to experience a sense of pleasure on entering the ward of a hospital. It would be unreasonable to expect the fundamental fact of sickness and suffering to be obliterated by a cheerful environment; but that the emphasis can and should be put on the hope of recovery and the joy of life seems axiomatic. And the point I wish to make, again, is that in seeking to accomplish this end we should make use of the physical environment no less than any other therapeutic agent. Make the hospital ward a tonic in itself, adding an esthetic section to *materia medica*.

"After many weeks spent in visiting institutions throughout Europe, the impression made by the ward of a recently completed hospital in London still stands out vividly in my memory. The room was rather low ceiled, and made no architectural pretense. But the sunlight came through prettily dressed windows and fell on stands of flowering plants, while the reflection of a brisk open fire danced on a dark polished floor. And lying in brass-knobbed beds, crisp and fresh against warmly tinted walls, the patients themselves provided a finishing touch of cheerfulness by wearing bed jackets of hunting pink. It was positively festive. In the midst of smoky London, and in the heart of a great institution, it gave one a shock of pleasant surprise. My first impression was that we had made a mistake; and the next, that if we were really by chance in a public hospital ward I should be more content to be ill under such conditions than well in most other rooms in London. Of course, I knew better than that; but such was the mental reaction, distinct and immediate, and in radical contrast, to experiences in a hundred other wards.

"For any one, I think, who has seriously studied hospitals must acknowledge that in most cases the doctor, with the help of the trained nurse and an equally efficient mechanical plant, makes his cures in spite of rather than with the aid of the atmosphere immediately surrounding the patient in the ward. To realize this you have only to ask yourself how the ordinary hospital ward would affect its inmates if they were placed there without the doctor, without the trained nurse, and with-

out all the other special aids to efficient treatment and bodily comfort.

"While a hospital is obviously and essentially a place to get out of, it should equally be a place into which the sick man is eager to go; and the presence of one and the same quality in the building would aid materially, I hold, in producing both these desirable characteristics. And it is of this quality and the relation it bears to all hospitals, and their design, that I shall now particularly speak."

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At the Sixth Annual Convention of the American Federation of Arts, held in Washington last May, Miss Cecilia Beaux read an interesting and important paper on "Professional Art Schools." In the course of her address Miss Beaux discussed such subjects as our art students and the problems they present, the curriculum and atmosphere of the art school, and the function of the master. In speaking of the relation of instructor to student, Miss Beaux said: "It seems to me, fellow-teachers, that never was there greater need than now for a deep, burning, and comprehensive enthusiasm in our class criticisms. There is not only seed to be planted, the soil be fertilized. Also the ploughshare should cut deep, and be guided by no uncertain hand. Once let the student have the experience of a heart quickened by the pangs of contact with a critical enthusiasm—once let him realize that when his heart was hot he perceived and performed as never before, and he will have learned a lesson that will suffice if he never has another." The complete paper appears in the November, 1915, number of *Art and Progress*.

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Miss Mary R. Callender is now beginning the thirteenth year of her work in training the voices of young women whose means do not permit of their paying for tuition. Forced by illness to give up her own work as a singer, Miss Callender determined to utilize the knowledge she had acquired from her teacher, Mrs. Bodstein, for the benefit of those really gifted.

For two years she made a study of the Art of so-called Voice Production, to ascertain if she had the teaching gift, and for the first ten years taught worthy young women every

day from ten to one o'clock. Three mornings a week are now devoted to teaching, the odd mornings to trying the voices of applicants, and advising on the best methods and means for their development.

Among the hundreds sent her for such trials the percentage considered worth entering the field has been extremely low, and that which gives a unique value to Miss Callender's work is the fact that the absolute truth regarding the possibilities of a voice is never withheld.

All of her pupils have become self-supporting, some as church or concert singers, while one has made a reputation in opera in Italy, and another was engaged for leading alto roles in the Munich Opera House.

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At the Philadelphia Convention of the Drama League of America a special committee was named to plan for suitable celebrations, nation-wide and local, of the Tercentenary of Shakespeare's death next year. Mr. Percival Chubb, of St. Louis, was made Chairman of the committee. Since then he has recently presented suggestions for the celebration at meetings convened by the Drama League Centers in New York, Washington, Boston and Philadelphia, which are now passed on to all our centers that they may take immediate action along similar lines, and report the outcome at the earliest moment to the Chairman of the committee. The response has been general.

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Catherine Chisholm Cushing is one of the new crop of young dramatists of this country, having been writing plays less than five years, and in that time has had six plays produced, all of which have been successes! The titles of her plays are:—"Miss Ananias"; "The Real Thing" (with Henrietta Crosman); "Widow by Proxy" (with May Irwin); "Kitty Mac Kay"; "Jerry" (with Billie Burke); "Pol'yana" (a dramatization of the book by that name). Three other plays from Mrs. Cushing's pen are scheduled as forthcoming this season, and more to follow!

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The Art Alliance of America, with its offices at 45 East 42nd Street, New York, was founded in the Spring of 1913.



by a group of New York men and women who, interested in art and in industrial betterment, and in the subject of vocational training, realized the necessity for a central organization in the interests of art workers. The President of the Board of Directors is William B. Osgood Field, of the Grolier Club; the First Vice-President is Mrs. Ripley Hitchcock, founder of the Art Workers' Club for Women. On its Board of Directors are, among others, W. Franklyn Paris, Herbert Adams, Royal Cortissoz, Albert Herter, Arthur I. Kellar, Ripley Hitchcock, Mrs. Clarence C. Rice, Mrs. John Henry Hammond, Dr. James P. Haney, Miss Constance Curtis, and Mrs. Montgomery Hare. Mr. Alexander S. Webb is the Treasurer.

For some years, both Mrs. Hitchcock and Mrs. Hammond had devoted themselves to making a survey of the art schools and organizations in New York, and secured in the course of their investigations a large number of letters and reports from teachers, artists and business men, which, taken together, indicated quite clearly the need of vocational guidance for young art students looking to art as a means of making a living.

They discovered existing among us an army of workers in the various fields of art whose efforts were purely individual. In many cases the story was simply a repetition of vocational misdirection of efforts in unprofitable fields, of time wasted through lack of knowledge and experience. Illustrations suitable for publishers of juvenile books were taken to publishers of standard works; designs which might have some promise for wall paper manufacturers were offered to manufacturers of rugs and carpets; pictures were worked out without special purpose which could have been shaped to meet the requirements of advertising. In a word, there was a great economic loss through lack of special ability or wrongly directed talent, or failure to learn specific technical requirements, or imperfect knowledge of the needs of many different fields for the work of artists, illustrators and designers.

Their investigations led to the formation of the Art Alliance, an association of workers in art and users of art in all branches, working toward a single end. One of the principal reasons, as set forth by them, why the nineteenth century was so barren of creative decorative art, was because the decorative arts had ceased to hold the high position they had occu-

pied in the earlier centuries. During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries workers in metals were counted as artists, taking their position beside the great painters and sculptors of their day, and during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries cabinet-making was a branch of architecture, and received the attention of the best architects. Only by restoring these arts to their proper place can inspired work be looked for again.

Six objects are therefore set forth in their Constitution: to promote co-operation between artists, art students, artisans, publishers, manufacturers, advertisers and all others who are engaged in artistic activities; with the assistance of experts to aid, direct and advise art students, artisans and artists in their studies and pursuits; to provide a general registry for artists, art students, artists and employers; to provide a department of information; to hold exhibitions; to publish information relating to the objects of the Alliance.

Mrs. Hitchcock is at the moment working to have an Industrial Art School for the city, the plans of which are now in the hands of the Board of Education.

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During the four years of its existence thirty-five performances have been given at the open-air Brookside Theatre, built and managed by Miss Martia Leonard on her property near Mt. Kisco. Of these "The Treason and Death of Benedict Arnold," by John J. Chapman, was produced for the first time. Greek dramas have been represented by the "Electra" of Euripides and the "Lysistrata" of Aristophanes, while "Les Romanesques" by Rostand, the "Orpheus" by Gluck and "The Beggar's Opera" by John Gay, have with numerous one-act plays made up a long list of successes. For her special work Miss Leonard equipped herself by a course of study in acting and play-producing with Delaunay of the Theatre Français.

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The characteristic pieces produced at the Durant Kilns, established at Bedford Village, N. Y., by Jeanne Durant Rice and Léon Volkmar in 1911, are vases, bowls, candlesticks, vases for lamps, fruit dishes, table decorations, garden jars, and tiles. The glazes thus far produced, and most successfully, are the white Italian Majolica; the Persian Blue, which

has not been produced since the fifteenth century, except at the Durant Kilns; the Egyptian Blue; the Aubergine (the first color used by the Egyptians and later by the Chinese); violet, Jade green, and Imperial yellow. The Boston Museum purchased an example of the Persian blue, and exhibitions have been held at the Art Institute at Chicago, and the Museum at Cincinnati. In this, Mrs. Rice's revival of the art of Pottery, it is interesting to remember that some great art collector once said: "A nation has to be highly civilized to be interested in pottery, and America is just beginning to outgrow its picture stage." The success of Mrs. Rice's pottery is due to the fact that color has never been sacrificed to line, nor has beauty of line been neglected in a search for color.

## 2. SCIENCE.

In a recent article Dr. W. H. Ballou discusses the question of whether recent explorations of the Arctic Zone will develop support for the theory that life originated near the North Pole, making that region the birthplace of humanity. In his exposition of this theory Dr. Ballou discusses the possible development of man in the Arctic regions to the north of Asia, more particularly Siberia, at a time when that region had a much more favorable—sub-tropical—climate. The change in climate is explained as being due to a marked change in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit. In support of the theory Dr. Ballou quotes various authorities on the fossil remains of arctic Asia, and describes the primitive peoples inhabiting these regions at the present time.

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During the past year Mr. Edward A. Beals, of the United States Weather Bureau at Portland, Oregon, has, under the direction of Professor Charles F. Marvin, Chief of the Weather Bureau, been paying especial attention to improving fire wind forecasts in the North Pacific States. During the season of 1914, which was one of the driest in the history of the Weather Bureau, eight fire wind forecasts,—or forecasts of strong, dry, easterly winds, which nearly always cause forest fires to spread beyond control—were issued and given a wide circulation. Of these eight forecasts seven were veri-



fied and one was a failure. During the season of 1915, which was not so dry as the year before and therefore less hazardous, only two fire wind forecasts were issued, both of which were fully verified.

Fire wind forecasts are issued in order that timber owners and those in charge of our National forests may take extra measures to prevent forest fires from starting or from spreading after they have started. The preventative measures consist of increasing the fire patrols, the stopping of burning permits, and, when necessary, the shutting down of logging operations.

The service is new and still in an experimental stage. It took forty years to build up a service that makes it practically impossible for a West Indian storm to hit the Gulf States without the public being amply warned of its coming. If fire wind forecasts can be established on as good a basis, it will do much toward lessening fire losses in our Western forests. There is no way of determining just what the money saving has already been through these fire wind forecasts, but the timber losses from fire both in 1914 and 1915 were quite small.

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At the Tenth International Geographical Congress at Rome, held in 1913, Henry G. Bryant, President of the American Alpine Club and for many years identified with the Geographical Society of Philadelphia, delivered "The Record of the United States in Geography, 1880-1913," copies of which have now reached this country. Within its forty stimulating pages are condensed a vast amount of careful and painstaking research placed in orderly and consecutive arrangement. He divides his review into the work of the Government, (the Coast and Geodetic Survey, by the way, is the oldest bureau of applied science under the Government), its Coast and Geological Surveys, the Army Engineers' Maps, and then takes up in detail the Arctic and Alaskan fields.

In 1912 Mr. Bryant finished his exploration of the St. Augustine River in Southeastern Labrador. In May, 1915, he returned from a journey from South America, which included visits to the east and west coasts and an examination or some of the interesting archæological remains of the Cuzco district of Peru.

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In making an address November 5th at the dedication of the new Mines Building of the School of Mines at the Pennsylvania State College, on behalf of the mining interests, and speaking as a mining engineer, Dr. H. M. Chance deprecated the promulgation of exaggerated and misleading statements of the waste of our mineral resources by the mining and metallurgical industries. He held that to realize the full benefits of conservation it is necessary to distinguish clearly between the relative value of the assets sought to be conserved, otherwise waste of the more valuable assets may result from efforts to conserve those of less value, and that as the Conservation of Life, of Labor and of Capital are more important than the Conservation of our Mineral Resources, the waste charged by Conservationists of the extreme type is not waste, because it includes materials that are efficiently used, consumed or sacrificed in conserving life, labor and capital.

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The activities of Dr. Isaac Monroe Cline, of the West Gulf Forecast District of New Orleans (United States Department of Agriculture, Weather Bureau), have of late years been concentrated on the issue of forecasts and warnings for weather, floods and storm conditions, and devising ways of getting warnings to the people when danger is impending. His work in connection with the terrible and unprecedentedly severe hurricane which passed over southeastern Louisiana September 29, 1915, when the wind for a few minutes reached the extreme velocity of 120 miles an hour, was remarkable. During the hurricane he remained continuously on duty, advising the public, from 6 a. m., September 29, to 1 a. m., September 30. The promptness of Dr. Cline and his assistants in sounding warnings by telegraph, telephone and wireless to the remotest places on the coast and surrounding country of Louisiana, and to vessels on the Gulf, is believed to have saved many lives and prevented an immense property loss.

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It is stated that fire losses amount each year in Canada and the United States to the enormous sum of half a billion dollars, a circumstance which makes perfectly obvious the importance of the introduction of fireproof construction of buildings. For the construction of such buildings reinforced con-

crete is one of the most promising materials. There is, however, a considerable divergence of opinion in the engineering profession as to what constitutes a correct design in this field, many of the prevailing theoretical requirements being such as would make the cost of reinforced concrete as a fireproof construction prohibitive. On the other hand, it is asserted that many entirely satisfactory buildings have been erected in downy right contradiction of such supposed theoretical requirements.

This conflict between theory and practice has occupied the attention of Prof. Henry T. Eddy for the past few years. Professor Eddy's work has been to make and publish a series of analyses and developments of a correct mathematical theory of the subject, and to show that his new theoretical results are in complete accord with the various scientific observations and tests that have been made.

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The research papers published by Professor Norton Adams Kent, Ph.D., deal principally with the following subjects:—The Zeeman effect (dissertation for the degree of Ph.D. at Johns Hopkins University); the electric spark in liquids and in air at high pressure; shift of spark lines due to changed conditions of the electric circuit; the structure of lines as obtained by means of an echelon; vacuum tube discharge in a magnetic field; certain lithium-tube lines and their magnetic separation.

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In her study of the *Papago and Pima Basketry*, prepared for the American Museum of Natural History, Prof. Mary L. Kissell has discovered in these two tribes "a salient point of cultural difference, until now thought to be culturally related." Thus investigations will be opened from a new point of view, the facts indicating a "possible relationship between the Papago and the old pre-historic people of the region." Further research in the out-of-the-way villages of the Quijotoa, Comobabi, and Baboquivari ranges gives promise as she says of much vital information on the subject.

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The great course of speculation, exploration, and research in regard to the pre-history of man, which opened with the publication of Darwin's "Descent of Man" over a half-century



ago, reaches its present culmination in the latest work of Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn, "The Men of the Old Stone Age." Here we find no speculative or theoretic meanderings, but a plain tale plainly told, the first presentation that is both authoritative and absolutely complete of what we actually know at the present time in regard to human pre-history.

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Professor Herschel C. Parker has completed, during the past year, the invention of what he terms the "Helioscope." This is a method of projecting a powerful searchlight under water and the means of observing the illuminated field so obtained, not only of the accompanying "Helioscope" but also that projected from the "Helioscope" of other vessels. It is anticipated that this apparatus will be of value in preventing collisions during fog, in wrecking operations, in the charting of coasts, and in marine warfare. Professor Parker has also applied for a patent for a diminutive submarine, which he wishes to give to the United States.

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Mr. Robert Ridgway was 17 years of age when attached as Zoölogist to the Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel under Clarence King. On this expedition, June, 1867-August, 1869, he made general collections, and studied particularly the bird-life of the Great Basin region of the West. Since then he has been engaged in ornithological work, at first under the Smithsonian Institution, and later under the National Museum (Curator of Birds since 1880).

In addition to his labors in ornithology he has given much attention to the study of colors, and the researches of many years were recently crystallized in his "Color Standards and Color Nomenclature," published in 1912.

He is also author of "A History of North American Birds"; "Report of the Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel"; "A Nomenclature of Colors for Naturalists and Compendium of Useful Information for Ornithologists"; "A Manual of North American Birds"; "The Ornithology of Illinois"; "The Birds of North and Middle America." Mr. Ridgway is a Fellow (founder) of the American Ornithologists' Union (President in 1899 and 1900); Honorary Member of the British Ornithologists' Union, of the German Ornithological So-

ciety, of the Royal Australasian Ornithologists' Union, of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, and Corresponding Member of the Zoölogical Society of London.

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A new research Chair has recently been endowed in the Mellon Institute and the Graduate School of the University of Pittsburgh, which will be known as "The Willard Gibbs Professorship of Research in Pure Chemistry," and of which Dr. Rosanoff has been elected the first incumbent for life. Such a Chair is obviously a most suitable memorial to the illustrious name of the American scientist who, in Professor Ostwald's language, "has given form and content to general chemistry for one hundred years to come." On the other hand, hardly any other investment for scientific purposes is as promising of fruit, in the long run, as the endowment of such research professorships, the incumbents of which to be relieved from the burdens of undergraduate teaching, of faculty meetings, of caring for laboratory supplies, etc., and, surrounded by a select group of young collaborators, to be free to pursue the search of new knowledge. A formal inauguration of the Willard Gibbs Professorship was held at the Mellon Institute on Tuesday evening, October 26th.

Dr. Rosanoff has recently completed an extensive series of investigations on the partial vapor pressures and the fractional distillation of liquid mixtures. This research, begun nine years ago, has occupied a considerable part of Dr. Rosanoff's own time and all the time of several of his student-collaborators, without intermission. An earlier part of the work was crowned by the American Chemical Society with its Nichols gold medal in 1910. But the results of the past three years appear to be far more valuable. It appears, namely, that Dr. Rosanoff has obtained a conclusive solution of the ancient problem of fractional distillation. The process of distillation has been in constant use since the days of the Alexandrian alchemists. In course of the nineteenth century, industrial distillation has been gradually improved, but even now it is capable of giving results barely sufficient for practical purposes. The *optimum* way of carrying on a fractional distillation has remained unknown, for the reason that the theory of the process has remained undeveloped. Attempts at formulating a mathematical theory of distillation were made by

Plücker in 1854, by F. D. Brown in 1880, by Sydney Young in 1894, and by Lord Rayleigh in 1902. But a grave and fundamental error that persisted through the work of these investigators prevented them from discovering the solution of the problem. Dr. Rosanoff has succeeded in detecting and demonstrating the error, and then the solution came almost of itself. The experimental verification of the solution is now completed, the forecasts of the newly developed theory being fully, with no deviation in any case, confirmed by experiment. The theoretical and experimental results have been presented before several learned bodies, including three Sections of the American Chemical Society, and the consensus of opinion has been that, as one well-known chemist has put it: "the results are of sufficient interest to theoretical science; but, by revealing the long-searched *optimum* of the distillation process, they also promise to lead to revolutionary improvements in the great distillation industries."

Another item of interest in connection with Dr. Rosanoff's scientific work is the completion, within the past few months, of two studies in homogeneous catalysis; one dealing with the mechanism of the inversion of sugar by acids, the other with the decomposition of tertiary amyl esters. "Catalysis" is the hastening of chemical reactions by the presence of certain substances which, apparently, themselves take no active part in the reactions. This type of chemical influence has been known since the time of Berzelius, and constitutes one of the most elusive mysteries in the world of chemical phenomena. The catalysis of the two reactions investigated by Dr. Rosanoff and his collaborators had been studied by a long succession of investigators, the list including some of the best known names in modern chemical dynamics. But these older results seemed to rather deepen than lighten the mystery, inasmuch as they indicated discord between the observed phenomena and the well-founded theory of electrolytic dissociation. By employing the most refined methods of physico-chemical experimentation, and especially by carrying out an extraordinarily extensive number of observations, Dr. Rosanoff has succeeded in bringing to light the hidden mechanism of the two reactions, and at least in these two cases dispelling for good the catalysis mystery.

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Dr. T. Wayland Vaughan is in charge of the Section of Coastal Plain Investigations of the United States Geological Survey. These investigations have covered the parts of the Atlantic and Gulf Coastal Plain and the Mississippi Embayment States underlain by geologic formations of post-Paleozoic age. Dr. Vaughan is also Custodian of Madreporarian corals in the United States National Museum, and since 1908 has conducted investigations on corals and the geology of coral reef areas, under the auspices of the Carnegie Institute of Washington. He is also engaged in a general geologic study of the perimeters of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea and of the Greater Antilles.

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Dr. Clark Wissler, director of anthropological research in the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, has for ten years been making a systematic investigation of the past and present history of the Indian tribes of North America occupying the center of the continent stretching from Hudson's Bay down through the Missouri Valley and thence to the Rio Grande. Dr. Wissler has given personal attention to the causes and conditions underlying the development of ritualistic ceremonies among the several tribes in the area studied, while among his associates in the work have been appointed the following lines of investigation:—the phonetics and historic relations of languages; the relationships and marriage systems; the development of industrial and graphic art; the secret societies of the northern Indians, and by the archaeological method, that of determining the chronology of the ruins in the southwestern part of the area. The publications to date fill seventeen volumes of the Anthropological Papers of the American Museum of Natural History, "their aim being to present first and foremost concrete data on social phenomena preparatory to an empirical study of the same."

### 3. MEASURES RELATING TO PUBLIC HEALTH.

For original work in the physical training of school children, Miss Jessie H. Bancroft, founder and President of the American Posture League, has been elected a Fellow in the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The national health movement, organized by Miss Bancroft, is co-operating with prominent physicians and educators to secure, in the construction of those articles of daily use which affect the posture of the human body, a recognition of scientific principles. The seats in the cars for the subway extension in New York City were designed by the Posture League. Her second volume on "Athletic Games for Players, Instructors, Officials and Spectators" has just been issued.

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Dr. Bertram M. Bernheim, author of "Surgery of The Vascular System," divides his time between the practice of surgery and surgical research work—a division of time and labor which he considers productive of the best results in the advancement of the Art and Science of Surgery. "For" as he says, "no investigator can attempt to overcome the difficulties that beset the active surgeon without being one himself, nor can he make advances without actually seeing the need for them." Dr. Bernheim is Instructor in Clinical Surgery in the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore.

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"Sickness in Dutchess County, N. Y.; Its Extent, Care and Prevention," is the subject of a hundred-page pamphlet issued in September, 1915, by the State Charities Aid Association. This survey of sickness is in a way unique, as our official vital statistics have to do almost exclusively with deaths, births and marriages, morbidity reports being restricted to the more common contagious diseases, and even here being commonly incomplete. In making this study five representative districts of the county were selected, aggregating a population of 11,800; and in these districts a house-to-house canvass was made, inquiry being made as to the occurrence and duration of sickness over a period of sixteen months. The results of the canvass were further checked up by information obtained from family physicians. In the districts visited 1,600 cases

of serious illness were brought to light, as were serious evidences of inadequate medical and nursing service. It is estimated that the cost of the county's sickness over the whole period was not less than \$412,000. A comprehensive program of remedial and preventive health work is outlined, which should prove useful, not only to Dutchess County but to the whole state. The funds for the investigation were furnished by the Thomas Thompson Trust, of Rhinebeck; its general direction was in the hands of Mr. Homer Folks.

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In 1910, Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins endowed the Department of Nursing and Health at Teachers' College, Columbia University, thus placing on a permanent basis the Department of Hospital Economy which, organized in 1905, had been unable because of lack of funds to develop its work satisfactorily.

The Department of Nursing and Health is wholly for graduate nurses and its main purposes are "to improve the administration and teaching in schools of nursing by preparing graduate nurses for these special fields, and to aid in the protection of public health by training graduate nurses for all the various forms of public health nursing upon which society is now leaning so heavily."

Since its endowment by Mrs. Jenkins, the demands from every part of the country for such specially trained workers, has grown so large that the department is quite unable to meet them. Demands are made especially for leaders and organizers who can awaken public interest and secure support and co-operation for such widespread preventive movements as those for infant welfare, for mental hygiene, and for the prevention of tuberculosis. Nurses are needed also for the educational and preventive work now being initiated under City and State Boards of Health, for the "Town and Country Nursing Service," recently inaugurated by the American Red Cross and other philanthropic and social organizations. New courses in Public Health Nursing are being opened up in various centres and there must be organizers and teachers for these. To meet these new demands, hospital training is not in itself sufficient.



Teachers' College is exceptionally well fitted to undertake a department like that endowed by Mrs. Jenkins. Through the School of Education, with its large staff of specialists in education, it provides facilities for work in every phase of educational thought and activity. Through the School of Practical Arts, with its extensive laboratories and modern equipment, it offers instruction in all the branches of biological and physical science, in the practical arts of the household, food and nutrition, in sanitation, in administration, in physical education, in applied sociology and economics, in history and literature, and in fine arts. The affiliation of the University with the New York School of Philanthropy makes it possible for students to get closely in touch with the general principles and methods of modern social work, while the graduate courses of the University provide opportunities for advanced students to do further work in any special field they may select. The combined library facilities of these institutions, with those of the New York Academy of Medicine, give exceptional advantages for reading and research.

Opportunities for observation and practice in Public Health Nursing are available in connection with the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement and its large organization of visiting nurses, with the Charity Organization Society of New York, the New York City Department of Health with its school nursing service and infant milk stations, and with many other institutions such as day nurseries, settlements, welfare departments and clinics. The hospitals of New York City, have always been most generous in providing opportunities for the students of this department.

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"We have in this country," says Miss Anna C. Maxwell, of the Presbyterian Hospital, "some 30,000 trained nurses, disciplined in mind and body, with skillful hands, experienced eye, and scientific knowledge of asepsis and hygiene." Between seven and eight hundred of these nurses have been sent to belligerent countries since the outbreak of hostilities. "The activities of the nurse in 'social service' are," she goes on to say, "distinct contributions to the work of maintaining public health, discovering social and economic causes of disease, and have given immeasurable aid to the physician; 'the Follow-

up Work' maintaining a continuous link of information between the patient and the doctor, co-operation in the anti-tuberculosis campaign, and efficient work in the public schools, which is already showing results in an improved generation of children."

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The interesting and important questions of what is being done, and what should be done, with children on the borderline between normality and feeble-mindedness is the subject of a report by the Standing Committee on Idiots and Feeble-Minded of the New York State Board of Charities. The committee, impressed by the good appearance of a number of such cases at the Rome State Custodial Home in 1913, directed that a careful study be made of the fifty-two cases at that institution. The investigation, which extended over a year, had the following results: One child died; seven were paroled or discharged; five were found so nearly normal as to make their removal to families or orphan asylums desirable; eight offered good promises of recovery if given special attention and training; while the remaining thirty-one appeared to be definitely feeble-minded. The report points out the inadequacies in the State's provision for the care of feeble-minded children and recommends that a special clearing house be created for the handling of such cases. The report of the committee, of which Mr. Simon W. Rosendale is Chairman, appears as a separate pamphlet issued by the State Board of Charities.

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On January 1, 1915, the New York State Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, of which Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, LL.D., was organizer and Chairman, was reorganized into the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness. By this reorganization the work of the New York State Committee, which is so widely known for its inauguration of the campaign against blindness from babies' sore eyes in the city and state, for its exposure of the dangers of blindness from wood alcohol, and for its efforts for better midwives, is avowedly placed on a national basis. It is anticipated that this reorganization will enable the committee to carry on its work

with even more effectiveness than in the past. The New York Committee preserves its identity as a sub-committee of the national organization, Miss Schuyler continuing as its Chairman and moving spirit in the work.

#### 4. PHILANTHROPIC MOVEMENTS.

One of the most hopeful developments in prison reform of the last few years is Warden Edmund M. Allen's "honor system" at the Illinois State Prison at Joliet. The Warden's work is an example of the present tendency to treat prisoners as ordinary human beings and to make their prison experience not a mere punishment but a preparation for a better and more useful life on release. One means to this end at Joliet is a prison farm, located about three miles from the penitentiary, and worked entirely by "honor convicts"; that is, by convicts who have promised not to leave the farm and who are not otherwise guarded. The results from the farm have been so satisfactory that Warden Allen now plans to enlarge the scope of the farming operations and to build a new penitentiary, depending largely on the aid of the prisoners. Beside his activities at the farm, the Warden has been influential in securing legislative acts to ameliorate the condition of convicts.

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Mr. Charles W. Ames was the originator of the Saint Paul Institute, at Saint Paul, Minnesota, and for the past eight years has given a large part of his time to establishing it along its present successful lines.

This Institute has neither foundation nor funds, its fundamental idea being democratic, "each member getting benefits, and each doing his share to give them." The purpose, which it has steadily maintained, has been "to help the people of Saint Paul to earn better wages by greater efficiency, and then to give them larger returns for their wages in the form of popular opportunities for the enjoyment of art, of science and of literature. The first purpose is served by the practical schools of the Institute; the second, by the creation of Art Galleries and Museums, by lecture courses and entertainments of a high



order, by study classes, all available and accessible to the people."

There were fifty-five Trustees when the Institute was incorporated in 1908. Since that time it has expended some \$200,000 "for the educational and cultural benefit of the community, and has put over \$500,000 which will be of future benefit to the Museum and Art Gallery." It has given some 100,000 lectures, concerts, art exhibitions and entertainments. The majority of them have been free, and when admission has been asked, it has been for a purely nominal sum. Audiences have amounted to some 300,000 people.

In its evening schools and its art school it has given instruction to over 12,000 students. These schools have included classes for foreigners learning English; for boys and girls completing their elementary education; evening high schools and evening industrial schools; University Courses, mostly in practical subjects; classes for school teachers, and classes in cooking, sewing and millinery.

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In an address delivered at Lake Forest, Illinois, Edgar A. Bancroft, LL.D., asks pertinently: "How shall we increase the value of America to the world, and the value of our immigrants to America? How shall we make their Americanization rapid and complete?" In answer to his own question he says: "First, the native citizens should work with the naturalized in hearty fellowship, so that both may feel the spirit of freedom and equality, of individual self-respect and independence, for which America stands. \* \* \* The naturalization ceremony should be made more impressive. \* \* \* What more important event is there than to become a citizen—one of the sovereign people—of this great Republic? \* \* \* Americanization is a matter of spirit and soul, not a matter of a man's physical birthplace, national origin or creed."

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The Juvenile Police Force of New York, founded eight years ago by an East Side boy whose enthusiasm and industry attracted the attention of Mrs. Clarice M. Baright to his work, now numbers approximately seven thousand members. Mrs. Baright, Attorney-at-Law, made a special study of the Juvenile Police Force, brought the organization to the attention of our Police Commissioner, who appointed a Committee to supervise

the Juvenile Police Force, and to build up, if desirable, a relationship as an auxiliary to the regular force. One of the results was permission given these boys to wear their uniforms on all state occasions.

The success of this movement lies primarily in the oath which each boy takes when sworn into the force, to correct first, his own faults; in other words, to police himself. A copy of this oath is given to him to hang in front of his bed. It reads: Be honest; be trustworthy; be loyal; be polite; be obedient; be brave.

His dues amount to five cents a week, out of which police uniforms and badges are purchased and all incidental expenses paid.

Each boy is given a block in his district to patrol. Boys who use profane language or who smoke cigarettes must be reported. Receptacles left open, that are under the law supposed to be covered, are called to the attention of the owner, the law cited and the owner cautioned. If the offense is repeated after this caution, the boy takes the matter up to the big policeman, who has been instructed from headquarters to assist the Juvenile policeman when he displays his badge. He also assists in helping to keep the fire-escapes free from obstructions and to clear the streets of crap-shooters. These boys are therefore made to feel that they are rendering real service, and that instead of using their surplus energy in the pursuit of mischief, they are employing that with which nature has endowed them, in an actual service to the community.

In reality, the movement means a utilization and direction of this same surplus energy and other primitive instincts. "Most juvenile delinquents who come from the congested neighborhoods," says Mrs. Baright, "find themselves in trouble primarily through seeking fun and adventure. The impulse to form gangs arises out of this very instinct, and finds its expression at that period of the boys' and girls' lives which may be termed the period of adolescence." It is to interest the public in the youth at this age that Mrs. Baright is directing her efforts.

The Union Settlement of New York has for twenty years been active on the upper East Side, doing service to a large and needy population of Russians, Italians, Austrians, Ger-

mans and Irish, nearly one-third of whom are illiterate. The Settlement owes its origin to the Alumni of Union Seminary, who in 1895 sent two students to a residence in East 96th Street. Its work began with a club started in a back kitchen, with the children of the janitor as sole members.

In a population crowded into tenement houses at the rate of seven hundred to the acre the Settlement supplies the primary need of space for the more important operations of life; "space in which the children may read and study, space in the playground where they may shout and play, space for public meetings and lectures, for dramatic performances and for dances, space for club meetings, first aid rooms for the sick or wounded, and a gymnasium which trains for strength and efficiency hundreds of girls and boys."

To-day the Settlement controls nine houses and a fine gymnasium building containing an assembly room, club rooms, a stage and a roof garden always crowded in summer.

Through its residents the Settlement acts the part of friendly guide, counsellor and helper to hundreds of neighbors, who come to the Settlement with every variety of need. Among them are some with a fine capacity for self-help and self-direction, but handicapped by ignorance, poverty and lack of acquaintance with American customs. Because of their close daily contact with these neglected peoples the residents are enabled to fulfill a double function as interpreter. To the foreigners they interpret with sympathy and patience what is best in our American ideals; to the city at large they interpret the foreigner, his aspirations, his potentialities and his needs.

The knowledge thus gained by a first-hand study of civic conditions has been used by the Settlement workers to promote remedial and protective legislation both in the city and the state. They have been influential in furthering municipal provision for play grounds and state laws for better housing of the poor, and for the protection of the children who work.

The Settlement is visited every week by three thousand persons belonging to the neighborhood. During the past summer more than fifteen hundred were sent for holidays to the country. Fifteen hundred men, women and children are members of its clubs and classes. Mrs. William Adams Brown, President and incorporator of the Women's Cosmopolitan Club of New York, was also an organizer of the Union Settlement



and the first Chairman of its Women's Board. She is now President of its Women's Auxiliary.

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In discussing nature play for children Charles Lincoln Edwards, Ph.D., Director of the Department of Nature Study in the Los Angeles city schools, says:

"Never tell children that which they may find out for themselves. Let them count the fingers on the hand of the cat, and then the toes. Have the children watch the activities of the ant nest, and then tell the story of their observations in the schoolroom and at home. In this way the child develops initiative, resourcefulness and the power of expression.

"As a record of individual observations, nature maps may be made of much value and at the same time give an inspiring opportunity for practice in drawing. On a large sheet of paper the pupil lays out his home square, bounded by streets and subdivided into lots. Houses, stables, trees, bushes, cats, dogs, rabbits, horses, cows, chickens and other birds, lizards, toads, ants and other insects—indeed, all the works of nature and of man that it is possible to include—are drawn in, or indicated by appropriate symbols. The sanitation map is a modification, showing all unsanitary conditions, such as piles of stable manure and other filth where flies breed, and stagnant pools harboring mosquito larvæ. An accompanying explanation indicates the remedial work to be done in order to make the region a sanitary place of residence.

"The nature map may be made the basis for a knowledge of economics by showing: (1) the gardens and the value of their products; (2) the utility of common garden animals—like the toad, lizard and spider—who eat destructive insects; (3) the proper development of the unused ground.

"At the general annual exhibition of nature play prizes are offered for the best nature map, poster, drawing and photographs, and this recognition of their work encourages the pupils to sketch and photograph from nature."

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Of the seventy-four people brought out from Belgium during the summer of 1915 by Miss Henrietta B. Ely, thirty-two were English nuns rescued near the firing line and returned to their sister convents in England.

Miss Ely had been asked to go to England and take charge of the running of a convalescent home for officers and soldiers in Scotland. While waiting for the home to be opened she was asked by the International Woman's Relief Committee if she were willing to go into Belgium and bring out the English children who were being educated in the convents of Belgium, many of whom had not been heard from since the beginning of the war, and some of whom had not been in England for four or five years. The person willing to undertake their rescue had to be a woman, preferably an American or any other neutral, and as Miss Ely spoke German and French, she assumed the risk.

These children and nuns were scattered throughout Belgium, and Miss Ely, with only her passport issued by our Government in Washington, and a letter from the International Woman's Relief Committee in England stating that she had volunteered to act as their agent, had to trace them from place to place. She was in Belgium for seven weeks, and made Brussels her headquarters. When the children and nuns had all been collected in Brussels, Miss Ely took them by train to Rotterdam, and from there also by train to Flushing, where they boarded a Zeeland Line boat, running from Flushing to the Tilbury Docks. Representatives of the International Woman's Relief Committee met them at the dock.

A few weeks later, on Miss Ely's return to France from an inspection trip through Poland, Dr. dePage of Belgium, whose wife had been lost on the *Lusitania*, asked if she were willing to attempt entering Belgium again to bring out his little son. Again, with no other credentials than her American passport, she undertook the journey, and through the courtesy of German officers the special privilege, both of entering Belgium and obtaining permission to bring the boy out, was granted her. She made the trip alone, going from Paris to Berlin, and from Berlin into Belgium, and at no time was anything but the most kind and courteous treatment shown her.

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The Three Arts Club, of New York, was organized in 1903 by Deaconess Jane H. Hall along the same general lines as those adopted by Mrs. Whitelaw Reid in her American Arts Students' Club, of Paris.

It is a non-sectarian organization, with a membership of 800, and its object is to provide a home and a club for young women engaged in the study of Music, the Drama and the Fine Arts (including the Arts and Crafts). For the past ten years Mrs. John Henry Hammond has been President.

The clubhouse, situated at 340 West 85th Street, has accommodations for 88 resident members, who pay from \$8.00 to \$9.50 a week for their room and board. Non-resident members, for the payment of \$1.00 annual dues, have the privilege of using the restaurant and the club rooms and taking part in the social life of the club.

A board of twenty-five managers controls the running of the club, which is nearly self-supporting. A director, who lives at the club, has the supervision of all the members.

Similar clubs have been established in London, Cincinnati and Chicago, and the hope is entertained that some day they will be found in all the large cities of the country.

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In September, 1915, the Froebel League, at 112 East 71st Street, began its seventeenth year of activity. Mrs. William Jay Schieffelin is the Honorary President, and Mrs. John Henry Hammond the President.

The main objects of this admirable League are to give to the children under its charge, from their third to their twelfth years, such education as shall best meet their needs and prepare them for the later schools to which they may go; to give to mothers, and to those entrusted with the care of children, such definite knowledge of Froebel's and other educational methods as shall enable them more intelligently to fulfill their chosen tasks; to develop in the minds of nurses and nursery governesses clearer aims and a keener sense of the dignity of their labors, and to furnish them with practical suggestions for the carrying out of these from week to week; to offer to the general public such lectures as shall meet the growing interest in child life and educational problems, and to carry on a kindergarten training school, in which technical training may be taken, leading to a professional diploma for kindergartners, as well as non-professional courses to prepare for the art of home-making.



Its Kindergarten Training School is chartered under and affiliated with the University of the State of New York, and its courses offer wide opportunities for study in all those subjects related to the education of children from infancy on through the kindergarten and primary grades; it includes all the subjects required by both the State Regents and the City Board of Education.

The normal course is planned for students who expect to become kindergartners. This course prepares the students to take positions as assistants or directors in private, mission or public school kindergartens, and gives some knowledge of primary methods.

The work of the Junior year includes a study of the natural activities of childhood as related to the values of life. That of the Senior year includes further theoretical and practical training in Froebel's Mother Play, gifts, occupations, games, myths, vocal and instrumental music, art educational dancing, science work, psychology, education of man, physiology, hygiene and the physical care of children, program work, pedagogics and primary methods. Practice work in kindergartens will be required.

The purchase of a tract of farm land in Connecticut furnishes an opportunity for practical gardening, tree study and agricultural experiences, as a complement to the theoretical science work. Each class spends a part of its Senior spring term in the country. Here the work of the house is done by the students. Field walks, regular classes and family life all combine to give renewed bodily vigor and wider vision of the often neglected factors which really educate the individual.

The Graduate Course offers classes in psychology, literature and Froebel's Mother Play; the educational principles of Froebel compared with other educators, such as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and with modern leaders of educational thought; original work and conduct of mothers' classes; theoretical study of gifts, occupations and games, with collateral readings in "Pedagogics," "Education by Development," "Educational Issues" and "Methods of Education."

The Mothers' Classes are planned to cover three years of work in the study of child nature, with its meaning, possibili-

ties and expression, especially during the first few years of infancy.

In the classes for governesses and nurses practical talks are given on subjects pertaining to the daily care of children, and each nurse compiles a book of songs, stories, pictures and games under direction given during the time devoted to practical work.

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The Children's Educational Theatre, to which Mrs. A. Minnie Herts Heniger, its founder and active manager, has devoted fourteen years of close study, is chartered by the Regents of the University of New York State. It has its own movable stage, proscenium, curtain and all scenery and all lighting equipment, which is carried about and set up in the large auditoriums of various public schools in Greater New York. This plan brings the play to the audience and saves the carfare and time of the working people. Among the plays it has presented are "The Forest Ring," "The Tempest," "Little Lord Fauntleroy," "The Prince and the Pauper" and "Miss Civilization."

"Of the three thousand two hundred young men, women and children trained in these plays," says Mrs. Heniger, "almost without exception they gain better and better positions in business organizations, due to their improved English and their superior understanding of human relations which the trained imagination inaugurates." Her purpose in this work has been to aid children in developing their inherent creative and dramatic instincts. "To thwart and stifle this instinct," she says, "may be to force it to burst out in some form of criminality. For what becomes crime in the adult is often untutored imagination in the child."

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Miss Winifred Holt sailed in the early summer for France, where the Minister of War had made every preparation to receive her. She took with her an aid-de-camp and a teacher for the blind, and they wore their brassards stamped by the War Office. The brassards is a Red Cross surmounted by a Lighthouse from which issue three searchlights, for *Liberté*, *Egalité*, and *Fraternité* for the blind. Her temporary headquarters have been at the Hotel de Crillon in Paris.

In a report to Mrs. Peter Cooper Hewitt, describing her search for the blind soldiers of France, Miss Holt says that she encountered everywhere only a ready response from officials. The suffering she encountered which she went to relieve is best told in her own words:

"We called on Captain de Beauvoir's especial blind protégé. There was very little left of him, excepting his courage. His legs had been amputated and his right arm. His huge eyes were blind, and he was carried like a child. He smiled often at the little woman who remained faithful to him, and still proposed to marry him, but the light of intelligence and the knowledge of a horizon had not come to him until I slipped the unfailing domino beneath his finger; and, for the first time he realized that he could find light through work. It was a wonderful thing to see the revivifying of this man through the simple toy. '*Mais, c'est le six,*' he said, '*je peux lire.*' We then tacked an alphabet onto a board, so that he could read with his left hand. The miracle continued, and before we left him he was eager to come to Paris and learn how to be blind. He actually laughed aloud with the idea of his being able to be a wage-earner and to marry the little girl who was his fiancée and go back to work in their home town. I stipulated that he should have stumps and a hook and glass eyes. It took more than my courage and my technique to look at him in his fearful plight.

"At Toulon we came to the lowest circle of Hell, where the poor, damned, blind spirits wait uncomplaining without hope, without courage. We climbed a hill to the Hospital de Ste. Anne. The sun beat mercilessly on the clay ground, which was only relieved by a few stunted palms. Four blind remnants were brought out to us in the radiating heat. I spare you the description in detail of what we were forced to look at. Enough that some had no faces, and one had no hands. Still, from the group, five in all, which we found there, there was one brave man who had been a chemist, whom we asked to come to Paris. He cannot sleep yet, and there is not very much left but his desire to work his way out from darkness to light.

"Since my return here we have had several new blind people. One is a doctor who was blinded, and was trying to kill himself by starvation."

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"There is no name so well known and so deeply respected among the Slavs," says the Reverend Vincent Pisek, Pastor of the Jan Hus Bohemian Presbyterian Church, "as that of Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins. She has given us the Slavonic Immigrant Home at 436 West 23rd Street, with all necessary furnishings and equipment, by all odds the most model institution of its kind in New York City, and she pays the salary of the secretary. The Slavonic Immigrant Home takes care of all the immigrants from all the Slavonic lands, and especially of the girls who come to this country alone and unprotected. The workers in the Home try to secure positions for them and to guard them against the perils which beset them on all sides. All of these girls look upon the Slavonic Home as their own home, and it is there they gather in their leisure and when they are unemployed.

"To the Jan Hus Memorial Church, 347-349 East 74th Street, of which I am the pastor, Mrs. Jenkins has made possible the erection of one of the most unique and beautiful steeples in this country. It is modeled after the steeple on the historical bridge over the Vltava in Prague. She helped in publishing a translation of Bohemian national songs, and she is the President of the Advisory Board of the Jan Hus Neighborhood House. She is held in such esteem that one of our clubs has adopted her name as the name of the club.

"Naturally, she has taken a great deal of interest in the present war, and has been untiring in her efforts in sending medical supplies, nurses and doctors to Montenegro and Serbia. The governments of these countries, recognizing her generosity and merit, have decorated her with the high order of St. Sava and St. Domilo and other Orders. For the heroic Serbs she has done perhaps more than for any of the other Slavic races. She has given them a house at 443 West 22d Street, with all necessary furnishings and equipment, to serve as a national center of the Serbian people in this country, as headquarters of their national benevolent and educational societies, and has donated a press for the publishing of a Serbian paper. She has given an endowment fund of \$150,000 for the religious education of the Serbs in this country.

"In view of her interest in and love of the Slavs, the National Slavonic Society, the Jan Hus Bohemian Presbyterian

Church and other Slavonic societies have made her an honorary member. The reception of Mrs. Jenkins as an honorary member of the National Slavonic Society was a brilliant occasion, which, because of the enthusiasm and love for Mrs. Jenkins manifested by the people, will long live in their memory."

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Hartley House, a social settlement on West 46th Street, between Ninth and Tenth Avenues, has for nineteen years been the center of a considerable part of the social life of the neighborhood, and contributed to the community leadership along many lines of social welfare. The activities of the house include kindergarten and play rooms for the younger children; social clubs for old and young people, and, as the need presents itself, educational classes and opportunities for supplementing the work of other educational institutions in the neighborhood. The policy of the house has always been that of the social laboratory, where ideas and methods may be tested as to their social value, and the result used for the benefit of the community, experimental studies being consistent however with a constructive program of work. Summer schools were maintained until the City provided such classes. One of the first home and school visitors in the city began her work as a resident at Hartley House and helped develop the plan for visiting teachers which has since been adopted by the Board of Education. A milk station was established when the need in the neighborhood was realized and was continued until the city took over the work. When the Settlement was first started there were few kindergarten classes in the neighborhood. Three kindergartens were maintained at Hartley House for several years. With the increase of such classes in the public schools, the Settlement discontinued two of the classes, giving opportunity for the development of other lines of work.

Industrial crises have been met from time to time as conditions of work have required special action. The establishment of the "Ship Shape Shop," a work-room for the training and employment of sewing women, was an effort to relieve the distress resulting from unemployment at the time of the industrial depression of 1907.

The interest of the Settlement reaches in many directions beyond the Settlement building. The Hartley Open Stair Tenement on West 47th Street was built in order that the residents of the neighborhood might have more comfortable homes at reasonable rates. The welfare of the tenants is always the first consideration in the management of the building and the way to a higher standard of living is provided in the classes of the Practical House-keeping Center, which occupies one of the apartments. This school of housekeeping is used also by classes from one of the public schools. The recreational work of the House is not confined to the city. There are summer camps for boys and girls and families, of which "Weeburn Farm," a camp for girls at Talmadge Hill, Connecticut, deserves special mention. Because of Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins' interest in the welfare of working girls, the club members have been given at this camp an excellent opportunity to work out a co-operative plan for summer holidays.

In a word, Hartley House has given to the neighborhood an opportunity for a happier and richer life, and is conducting its work to-day in the same spirit of democracy and social progress which characterized the work of the founders of the Settlement.

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The White Memorial Foundation of Litchfield, Connecticut, of which Miss Alice E. Kingsbury is Trustee, was founded by the White families of New York and Litchfield. Its purposes, according to its certificate of incorporation, are: "With its own real and personal property to maintain and conduct a home or homes for the relief and cure of invalids and convalescents; and to provide medical or surgical treatment for the same; also to establish and maintain one or more buildings, parks and public forests for the recreation and improvement of the invalids, or for the study or encouragement of agriculture, horticulture, forestry, outdoor life and exercise."

Miss Kingsbury is also Trustee of the Chapman Home at Northfield, Connecticut—a small house accommodating about twenty-five children recommended to its care by individuals or by charitable societies.

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During the past few years, Mr. George J. Kneeland has been director of the Department of Investigation of The American Vigilance Association, and, later, of The American Social Hygiene Association. In this capacity, he has studied social evil conditions in different American cities for state and municipal commissions, political reform leagues, and private organizations. Mr. Kneeland has also devoted a considerable part of his time to lecturing on the social evil and its related problems.

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Mr. Edward D. Libbey, President of the Toledo Museum of Art, has succeeded in bringing the museum and its message close to the people. During the past year the attendance has equalled 76 per cent. of the population, by far the largest attendance per capita enjoyed by any Museum of Art in the country. It is Mr. Libbey's desire to establish the closest possible relations between the museum, the child and the artisan. To this end there have been inaugurated many activities reaching out into the life of the community, as, for instance, the Prize Garden Campaign, conducted during the past summer, which resulted in the beautifying of homes and vacant lots in every part of the city. Thirty thousand children were instructed through illustrated lectures in such principles of landscape gardening as could be applied to the average small home surroundings. Under the guidance of the museum, the children of the city last spring also built and placed in position some 10,000 bird houses with most beneficial results. Mr. Libbey plans during the coming year to make the institution of still more practical value to the working men and the wage-earning women in the community, and to do this by means of lectures, educational motion pictures and special exhibits tending to develop that dormant instinct for art which, when aroused and nurtured, contributes largely to the joy of the maker and the beauty of his works.

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The American Art Students' Club of Paris, founded by Mrs. Whitelaw Reid in 1889, has for a year or more been loaned to the French Red Cross, its fifty bedrooms being occupied at the moment by as many wounded French officers and soldiers. In addition to the bedrooms, the large exhibition

room has been converted into a ward of twenty beds. Five of the seven studios are utilized as officers' rooms, the two larger studios being used as operating rooms.

Mrs. Shields, who for some years presided over the Club, is still in charge of the building for Mrs. Reid. Every afternoon tea is served to the soldiers, and they have access to the Club library. President and Madame Poincairé have visited the hospital and expressed appreciation of the beautiful order in which they found everything.

At the outbreak of the war the art students housed in this Club were obliged to flee Paris. A few of its outside members—women painters, sculptors and musicians—attempted to brave the changed conditions, but, finding the struggle too hard, have left the city.

Mrs. Reid's Club in London, "The Barnsbury Girls' Club," has not had the character of its activities affected by the war. It was founded in 1909 as a girls' and boys' club, and now occupies three buildings. The superintendent, Miss Gallwey, has eighteen girls residing with her who are being trained for domestic service. Besides these girls, the Club has an outside membership of a hundred girls and a hundred boys, who come to the Club every evening to join classes in domestic science and manual training. Every eligible boy has enlisted in the army, making a total contribution of thirty-seven units to the national cause.

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The French War Department has accepted from Mrs. Oscar L. Richard her contribution of a portable field hospital. This hospital is provided with twenty-two beds, also collapsible chairs, tables, etc., and can be erected and taken down and moved from place to place on a truck by a few men within a few hours.

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The report for the past year of the United Hebrew Charities of New York City, of which Adolph Lewisohn is an Honorary Vice President and William Salomon, Walter H. Liebmann and Cyrus L. Sulzberger are trustees, presents an interesting picture of the organization's activities.

The profound economic disturbance in New York caused by the European war subjected the organization, in common with the other charities, to an unusually severe strain. In meeting its problem the Hebrew Charities co-operated with the other great private relief organizations, with the city charitable authorities, and with such agencies as the Mayor's Unemployment Committee. During the year the Hebrew Charities spent \$271,524, as against \$241,698 for the previous year, and cared for some 9,000 families. Even in the face of the year's unusual strain the society has been able to give its attention to such matters as increased efficiency of administration, more adequate relief, and the training of communal workers, and feels that it has been able to make distinct progress in these various directions.

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To complete the work among the Jolo Tribe in the Philippines, which she began several years ago, Mrs. Lorillard Spencer sailed from San Francisco on November 20th. Mrs. Spencer expects to return to this country next June.

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The New York Women's League for Animals, of which Mrs. James Speyer is President, reports that in 1914, there were 36,895 sick and injured animals treated in the Free Hospital and Dispensary for Animals at 325 Lafayette Street.

When it is remembered that of the 90,000 horses in Greater New York nearly seventy-five per cent. are bread winners, the economic value of such a hospital, apart from its humanitarian aspect, must be instantly recognized. For these are the help-mates of the laboring man, and often the sole support of some worthy couple. Brought to the hospital, ill or disabled, they have, after receiving kind care and attention, been restored to their owners in perfect health and condition, ready to assume again the burdens of the family.

The same care has been bestowed upon the pets of children, and with this care juvenile education has received a marked impetus. One Hundred and fifteen lectures have been delivered, reaching not only the children of New York's public schools, guilds, clubs and settlements, but those of other cities and towns. The audiences have aggregated 30,000.



A supervision of bird-stores and emporiums for pets has also been carried on, leading to improved conditions among them, and sometimes to the closing of badly kept shops. "For cruelty must be denounced and must be stopped for the sake of mankind as well as for the sake of the animals."

The Hospital itself, a dignified three-story and basement structure of generous proportions, is equipped with an ambulance room, one for the treatment of horses in emergency cases, a padded stall, a contagious ward for horses as well as an operating room. The small animals are cared for on an upper floor, where there are quarters for birds, besides various contagious wards for dogs and cats. Animals injured beyond recovery are humanely destroyed in the electric cage. On the roof is a paddock where convalescents can be exercised in the open air. There is a resident veterinary who has a corps of trained assistants. Twenty-four horses can be readily accommodated, with forty dogs and thirty cats.

The site of the hospital was carefully chosen in the business section and has a watering station of its own, where an average of 2,000 and a maximum of 3,500 horses are watered daily. While relief to the animal has been the keynote of the work, many ways of relieving the poor have also sprung out of it. Thus at some of the watering stations employment has been given to men who through some infirmity have been incapacitated for heavy work. And again, while relieving the animals, the needs of many children have been brought to the League's attention and assistance rendered.

Another important branch of the work is the gratuitous distribution of relief supplies, particularly among horses. During one summer, 1,500 light weight bridles were given away, while during the severe winter weather blankets, chest protectors and chained shoes were distributed.

The annual Work Horse Parade and the awarding of prizes to drivers and policemen has, under the inspiration of the League become an event of public importance in New York, and been inaugurated in other cities.

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The Mayor's Sub-Committee on 'Unemployment Among Women, which owed its origin to the great destitution prevailing in New York at the time, was organized in December,

1914, with Mrs. James Speyer as Chairman and Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins as Treasurer. Four shops were opened and kept in full operation for 217 working days. In these shops—on Hester Street, East Eighth Street, Mott Street and East Broadway—employment was given to an average of 886 women per day, making an aggregate of 51,720 women employed.

The occupation followed, was that of sewing simple household garments and children's wear. While under the care of the Committee 275 women found employment elsewhere. Of the garments made, 9,039 were finished and distributed to the Children's Aid Society, hospitals and various neighborhood settlements and relief agencies.

No money was spent for the rent of buildings, the quarters used, nor for equipment, the first being donated by the Children's Aid Society, and the latter being paid for by the Chairman out of private funds contributed for the unemployed.

The method followed in admitting the workers to the shops was altogether admirable. Every applicant, unless vouched for by a relief agency, such as the Charity Organization Society, the United Hebrew Charities, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, was investigated by a trained social worker. The cause of distress was ascertained, and every effort made to place the family upon a self-supporting basis.

Every applicant was also given work, immediately, in the workshop nearest her home, and investigation of the case followed. As far as could be learned, investigation proved that in almost every case the need was urgent. A card system, tabulating occupation, nationality, former wages, etc., was kept in each workshop for the purpose of future analysis and study. The Committee found that these women workers were chiefly of two classes: factory workers recruited from the seasonal trades, and mothers of large families who were forced to look for employment because their husbands, chiefly longshoremen and men in tailoring trades, were out of employment for a period of from seven to eight months.

The intention of the Committee was, as far as possible, to give vocational training to the workers. It is interesting to note that a large proportion of the women who came to the

shops could not even mend or sew the simplest of household garments. When the term of instruction was finished, they were able to turn out creditable wearing apparel for children.

The report of the work done in Brooklyn and submitted to the Honorable E. H. Gary ends by pointing to two great needs: First, a systematic and standardized course of industrial training, along vocational lines, for women who must support their families permanently, (a) because they are widows, or their husbands have deserted them, and (b) because their husbands, or other bread-winners, have become industrially incapacitated. Second, intensive cultivation in connection with the removal of the young and growing families, to farm and country communities, by State and Federal Immigration Bureaus.

An interesting feature of the report is its cheerful and helpful philosophy. "Unemployment," it urges, "need not be a calamity; it might hold out an opportunity. Out-of-work time need not be a time of loss; it might be made a time of gain. If the girl out of a job can be given training which will increase her earning power, or if she can be helped to find out in what field her abilities lie, unemployment time may be 'capitalized' so as to return real benefits."

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In the spring of 1914 Mr. Carl B. Spitzer, one of the Board of Trustees of the Toledo Art Museum, and President of the Commerce Club, conducted a garden campaign in Toledo, under the auspices of the Toledo Art Museum, working principally through the school children, and employed a salaried expert to give talks to the school children on garden work. With his co-workers he secured free transportation from the Traction Company to take the children to the Art Museum for lectures on gardening; raised funds to provide a full set of garden tools for each of the sixty public and parochial schools, and to purchase separate sets of prizes for home-garden competition in each one of the schools; provided for the sale of good garden and vegetable seeds, at the offices of all the newspapers and at the Art Museum at one cent a package, and conducted a general publicity campaign through the columns of the local papers and in lectures and talks.



Over 200,000 packages of seeds were sold, and the campaign closed with a flower and vegetable show at the Art Museum. In 1915 Mr. Spitzer prevailed upon the School Board to employ an expert, who gave garden talks in the different public schools.

As a member of the Child's Playground Association, he in co-operating with a few other citizens induced the Park Board to purchase for play grounds in the central congested district a fine large piece of property, which was just about to be cut up into lots. As a member of the Federation of Charities, and under its auspices, he assisted in securing an adequate open-air camp for poor children on the shore of Lake Erie, a few miles from the city, which has been in successful operation for two summers.

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In the Looking Forward Club, organized by Mrs. Florence M. Stowell under Mr. John Wanamaker, there are now some 2,100 young women enrolled, with a clubhouse where the educational benefits extended include instruction in English, current events, dramatic expression, and domestic science. Great stress is also laid upon a proper physical development, lessons being given in gymnastics, swimming and dancing.

Two years ago, when the Metropolitan Board of Young Women's Christian Association of New York City made its \$4,000,000 campaign, Mrs. Stowell was selected as a representative business woman, and was the leader of the Business Women's Committee.

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Rodman Wanamaker has sent three educational expeditions into the Far West to study the North American Indian in his own home. The first in 1908, the second in 1909, gathering life pictures and photographs of the "Last Great Council." On May 12, 1909, Mr. Wanamaker suggested to the nation that a National Indian Memorial be erected in the Harbor of New York, and Congress authorized its erection by an Act signed by President Taft, December 8, 1911. The third expedition—an Expedition of Citizenship—took its inspiration from the ceremonies at the opening of the ground for this

Indian Memorial on Washington's Birthday, 1913. As the thirty-two eminent Indian chiefs from western reservations there present, for the first time in their history raised the flag of our country and signed under its folds a Declaration of Allegiance to the United States Government, composed by themselves, they said: "We have never before felt that we were a part of this country."

All these expeditions were actuated by the thought of instilling into the Indian mind an ideal of patriotism that would lead him to aspire to citizenship; and become, as Thomas Jefferson expressed the hope, "truly one people with us, enjoying all the rights and privileges we do, and living in peace and plenty."

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The Boy Conservation Bureau—of which Mr. A. B. Leach is President; Mr. A. V. Heely, Vice-President Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, is Treasurer, and Mr. E. W. Watkins, Secretary—received the approval of the State Board of Charities in 1912. Its headquarters are at 90 West Broadway. Among the many well-known men, closely identified with the work, are Amos L. Prescott, Lloyd W. Smith, Samuel Sloan, Samuel Murtland, and Charles M. Lindsay. The Bureau pleads the cause of the homeless and imperilled boy, with whom the world has gone hard, or who has been left destitute by some untoward and tragic circumstance. These boys are brought to the attention of the Bureau by Clergymen, Secretaries of the Y. M. C. A., Social and Settlement Workers, Teachers, Probation Officers, parents and friends. They are then placed in Home Industrial Farm Schools, funds for their education, clothing and other expenses being borne for the most part by private individuals. Generally speaking, some one business man undertakes the education of a special boy and pays \$200 a year for his expenses. In every case the Bureau remains in close touch with each boy, several hundred of whom have already been given a new start in life.

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## 5. OUR COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

In the October number of *Classical Philology*, published at the University of Chicago, Professor Frank Frost Abbott, of Princeton, has a study of the "Colonizing Policy of the Romans from 123 to 31 B.C." During these years the democratic party rose to power under the leadership of the Gracchi and of Julius Caesar, and introduced a radical change in the foreign policy of the government, a change which hastened the Romanization of the world, and led in the end to the improvement of Rome's government of its dependencies and to the knitting together of the different parts of the empire. In this article the author aims to trace the steps by which the new policy was developed.

Professor Abbott is also engaged in translating and editing a Latin treatise on international law in which occurs one of the earliest known formulations of the principles governing contraband, the trade of neutrals, and other controverted points of maritime law.

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The Dropsie College for Hebrew and Cognate Learning in the city of Philadelphia, of which Doctor Cyrus Adler is President, is a post-graduate institution devoted to study and research in Biblical and Rabbinical Literature, Semitic Languages and Jewish history. In the admission of students there is no distinction on account of creed, color or sex. During the past year thirty-eight students were enrolled. The College has a library of twelve thousand volumes. At Founder's Day, 1915, the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy was granted to two graduates. The principal address on that occasion was delivered by the Honorable Charlemagne Tower. The College publishes the New Series of the Jewish Quarterly Review, now in its sixth volume, under the editorship of its President and the late Doctor S. Schechter, President of the Jewish Theological Seminary of America.

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President Edwin A. Alderman has spent thirty-three years of continuous educational service in the Southern States, during which time he has touched helpfully every phase of educational work from the public school to the University. For



the past twenty years he has served as President of three of the largest and best known Southern Universities—the University of North Carolina, his Alma Mater, 1896-1900; The Tulane University of Louisiana, 1900-1904; and the University of Virginia, 1904-1915.

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“Our Modern Debt to Israel,” by Professor Edward Chauncey Baldwin, of the University of Illinois, has been placed by the District Grand Lodge No. 6 of the B’nai B’rith in the public libraries of one hundred cities of the Middle West.

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In the American Journal of Anatomy and in the Pedagogical Seminary, Dr. Robert Bennett Bean, of the Tulane University, of Louisiana, has published the results of his investigations on the eruption of the permanent teeth from the standpoint of race, sex, type, and growth. In these he lays down the following law of alteration in development:

“There are one or more periods of acceleration alternating with periods of retardation in the development of each structural unit or organ of the body. The periods of acceleration in the development of one structure may be synchronous with the periods of retardation in the development of another, and the two may be called complementary structures. Each organ has a critical period when it is developing most rapidly, and when it is probably most susceptible to its environment.”

His investigations at the Charity Hospital during the past year have revealed that the type of man which he calls the hyper-ontomorph is susceptible to pellagra and cancer. The same type had been found to be susceptible to Tuberculosis, leprosy and insanity previous to this, and immune to diseases of the heart, kidneys, arteries and veins. The diseases to which this type is susceptible are due in part to malnutrition, and the reason for this is that the type has a short intestine, and a vertical J-shaped stomach, with a long, low, loop to the transverse colon, all of which interfere with digestion and predispose to digestive and nutritional troubles.

He is now engaged upon “A New Classification of Human Types,” to be ready early next year for publication in book form. It is to have 100 illustrations, and will be divided in

three parts: the anatomical basis of the classification, including development and evolution; the pathology of the types, including their immunity and susceptibility to disease, and the geographical distribution of the types.

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By a recent action of the University of Chicago trustees, a new department of Oriental languages and literatures has been organized at the University, with James Henry Breasted, Professor of Egyptology and Oriental History and director of the Haskell Oriental Museum, as chairman of the department. The practical purpose of the new organization is to furnish administrative facilities for offering a wider range of Oriental studies, and will include in its scope work in the Russian language and Russian institutions. Professor Breasted was director of the Egyptian expedition sent out by the University of Chicago in 1905.

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One of the three special phases of educational work emphasized in the Baldwin-Wallace College at Berea, Ohio, of which Arthur L. Breshlich, Ph.D., is President, is that devoted to the training of our foreign population. In Cleveland, which is but an hour's ride from Berea, there are some 300,000 Slavic people, having no educated leadership, except that of labor representatives. The Slavic department of the college was started some two years since, its purpose being to educate leaders for this great mass of people, living in the very shadow of the college walls.

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"The State Publication of School Books," is the title of a recent monograph by John Franklin Brown, who has been interested in studying this question from both the educational and the business point of view. According to a recent investigation of the United States Bureau of Education, we are spending in this country, he says, "about \$17,000,000 annually for school books. This is about 2 per cent. of the total expenditure for our schools. In view of the fact that many of our teachers are not well trained, and that consequently both teachers and pupils are very largely dependent upon the textbooks for what they accomplish in school work, it seems very desirable that the making of school books should be kept upon

the highest possible plane so far as quality is concerned. In an attempt to save a little money there has been a movement recently to have the state publish its school books. According to the testimony of educators and according to the best figures now available, in states where the experiment has been tried the books have cost more rather than less, and the quality has undoubtedly been much inferior to that found in the books put out by the regular publishers."

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As an outgrowth of the researches leading up to the initiation of *Palaeographia Iberica*, Professor John M. Burnam, of the University of Cincinnati, proposes to begin at the earliest possible moment, by way of supplement and extension, *Bibliotheca Iberica et Technologica*, a series of works in Latin and its offshoots in Spain and Portugal, together with such texts in these or other languages as may contribute to our knowledge of the Medieval Technology.

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To George L. Burr, LL.D., Librarian and Professor of Medieval History at Cornell University, has been entrusted the stimulating task of editing for the press the materials for a history of witchcraft, left incomplete at his death by that most eminent of medievalists, the late Henry Charles Lea, of Philadelphia.

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"In order to secure the greatest progress in all parts of our country," says President Butterfield, of Massachusetts Agricultural College, "rural life must be thoroughly organized. All the resources of modern civilization should be placed at the disposal of the countryman. The most expert aid with respect to health, education, recreation, as well as in the growing and disposal of crops, should be offered to the farmer. If the farm problem be a unit, the forces of progress must be a unit. This means the complete organization of American agriculture and country life.

"It is equally imperative that the process of rural improvement shall be one not of the imposition of city ideas upon the farm people, but of the development of the people themselves chiefly through their own initiative. This means the develop-



ment of the community sense, of the community plan and program \* \* \* stimulated and aided to some degree by extraneous agencies but always self-development."

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After five years of constructive work at Mills College, California, Miss Luella Clay Carson resigned from the Presidency in 1914. From the Pacific University she received the degree of Litt.D., and that of LL.D. from the State University of Oregon, where she had held the Professorship of Rhetoric, English and American Literature.

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Some months since John Bates Clark, LL.D., of Columbia University, was elected as a foreign member of the Royal Swedish Academy of Arts and Sciences.

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Mr. V. L. Collins is preparing for publication the new edition of the "General Biographical Catalogue of Officers and Students of Princeton University from 1746 to 1916." The new edition of this catalogue, which is published by the University decennially, will be more complete in genealogical and biographical detail than its predecessors. Special effort has been made to secure exact information as to parentage, birth, death and marriage dates, public, professional and social service, etc., of all officers and graduates since the founding of the University. The last edition, covering the period 1746-1906, was issued in 1908. It is expected that the new edition will be ready in 1917.

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Under the direction of Professor John H. Dickason, the Wooster Summer School has increased its list of membership from something less than fifty to sixteen hundred in 1915. The school has no endowment, and maintains a strong teaching force of almost one hundred.

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Since the installation of William Franklin Curtis, Litt.D., as President of the Alleghany College for Women, at Allentown, Pennsylvania, the enrollment of members has doubled, and new buildings with new equipment added on a new site near the city. The interest of the citizens was shown by a contribution of \$100,000 for these improvements.

Samuel T. Dutton, LL.D., retired in June, 1915, from his professorship in Teachers' College at Columbia University, and is now devoting himself to the Constantinople College for Women and the Canton Christian College. For both of these institutions Dr. Dutton is a trustee. He is also editor of the "Christian Work"; active director in the American Peace Society, and one of the four members of the Council of the Berne Bureau of International Peace.

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Professor Arthur S. Eakle, of the University of California, is engaged in the study of mineral occurrences within California, and the California State Mining Bureau has recently issued a bulletin by him which contains what is at present known about the mineralogy of the State. California is, perhaps, the most interesting State, mineralogically considered, because no other section of our country has possessed so many of the physical and chemical conditions essential to the formation of varied mineral species.

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George T. Ettinger, Ph.D., Dean of Muhlenberg College, has just published "Pedagogy, the Fourth Profession," "The American College and Its Problems," and "The Relations and Duties of Colleges to Their Preparatory Schools."

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Professor Henry Jones Ford, of Princeton University, has been granted a Sabbatic leave for the second term of the present academic year. He will employ the time in collecting material for a treatise upon representative government. During the academic year of 1914-1915 Professor Ford issued a historical work, entitled "The Scotch-Irish in America," and also a treatise upon social and political origins, entitled "The Natural History of the State." Both works were published by the Princeton University Press.

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During the winter of 1913-1914 Professor George Stuart Fullerton, LL.D., served as first American Exchange Professor to the Austrian Universities, and lectured at Vienna, Gratz,

Innsbruck, Cracow and Lumberg. His lecture in Vienna was delivered at the first public meeting of the Austrian Society for International Conciliation. In the summer of 1914 he published a book in the German language on the American Universities. His year's work consisted in endeavoring to make bonds of connection between the Educational System of the United States and that of the Austrian Empire. The Austrians showed great interest in the matter, and the goodwill of the Government was indicated by the fact that, at the close of his mission, he was, at the request of the University, appointed by the Emperor Francis Joseph an Honorary Professor of the University of Vienna.

During the past year Professor Fullerton has been in Munich, on leave of absence from Columbia University, and has occupied himself in assisting the work of the American Red Cross Hospital in Munich, and in that of International Conciliation, on which subject he has written both in English and in German, a short work aimed at helping to knit again relations and connections, the rending of which should be a source of regret to the scholars of all nations.

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The annual oration before the Columbia University Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was delivered in May, 1915, by Miss Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Dean of Barnard College,—then celebrating the twenty-fifth anniversary of its founding. In her address, "Some Guides for Feminine Energy," Miss Gildersleeve says aptly: "The various changes in our economic and social conditions have shut off from the once necessary and useful household occupations an immense amount of energy which healthy, normal women, like other intelligent beings, must extend in some form of activity. \* \* \* We cannot, if we would, turn it back into the old channels alone. \* \* \* It is the life of to-day that we must face and live. \* \* \* The problem I have been considering is the using of the rapidly increasing amount of feminine energy *not* absorbed by these ancient duties. The fact that *part* but not all of the time and thoughts of so many women will continue to be occupied by domestic affairs, throws on us the obligation of trying to adjust our economic and social organization so as to provide many "part time" positions to use these surplus hours of our



married women; and also many kinds of work to which married women may return after a period of years devoted wholly to children and the home. The wisdom and energy of experienced and high-minded women between the ages of forty-five and sixty-five afford a rich store on which the community should draw. These adjustments will not be easy; but they will no doubt work themselves out in the course of the next few years." \* \* \*

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In addition to his regular duties as Professor of Government in the University of Texas, and service on the Course Committee and Graduate Council, Charles G. Haines, Ph.D., Chairman of the University of Texas, is now engaged in two lines of outside work. He is chairman of the committee of seven of the American Political Science Association, appointed four years ago to investigate the teaching of government in schools and colleges and to make recommendations for its improvement. Two preliminary reports have been published in the annual proceedings of the Political Science Association. The final report now in preparation will include suggestive methods for presentation of courses in Government and Civics in the elementary grades, in the secondary schools, and in the colleges and universities. The report will be presented for discussion at the annual meeting of the Political Science Association in Washington, D.C. Much of the data embodied was gathered in co-operation with the Bureau of Education.

Along his second line of work Dr. Haines is preparing a series of articles dealing with the relation of courts to legislation. The first of this series appeared in the *Harvard Law Review* for April, 1915, and articles are promised to the *Harvard*, *Yale* and *Columbia Law Reviews* for the current year. The articles in preparation are: "Judicial Review in Australia and South Africa," "Judicial Review in Relation to the Law of Nature," and "Guarantees Against the Arbitrary Powers of Legislation in France."

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"The two greatest steps in advance made by the last generation in secondary education have been those of organization, both of them concrete and practical," says David H. Holmes, Ph.D., Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

"The first of these, the wide application of the elective system to meet the demands of natural bent, or intellectual taste or aptitude, has finally extended itself into the public school system. So thoroughly has this extension justified itself already that its further extension is being recommended.

"The second step, in providing special courses of study, and special schools, commercial, technical and vocational, has met the more immediate and urgent demands growing out of the necessity of making a livelihood.

"Thus, personal bent on the one hand, and personal necessity on the other, have had their proper effect in shaping our school systems along the lines of concrete organization.

"The next great step in advance, at least in secondary schools, will be also along the lines of organization, and will meet a still greater demand. This is the need for adapting our courses of study and our organization of classes to the varying capacities of our pupils. We are finally learning from experience that with varying capacities thoroughness is being sacrificed under a system of uniform syllabus requirements and of inflexible class organization."

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For twenty-three years William Mann Irvine, LL.D., has been Head Master of the Mercersburg Academy, Pennsylvania. When he assumed that office he found nothing but a Sheriff and a debt, four acres of ground, and but one building which the school could use. The debts have now been paid off; one-half million dollars' worth of equipment been added; one hundred and twenty acres of land acquired, and twelve buildings constructed, each better than the last. It has enrolled four thousand boys, gathered from every state in the Union and from fifteen foreign countries, and has sent a large percentage of these boys to ninety-six different colleges and universities, reaching from Oxford in England to Leland Stanford in California, and from the University of Maine to the University of Havana.

Numerically, the Mercersburg Academy has become the third largest academy of its type in this country. One feature of the work is that of helping through the course about sixty boys of moderate means. These fellows wait on the tables in

the dining room, and some of the "choicest spirits in the whole crowd are in this division of working boys." One of the stimulating factors in this rapid development of the academy has lain in the frequent addresses and lectures delivered by representative men of our country, with whom the young students are, in this way, brought into personal contact.

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During the past year Emory R. Johnson, Ph.D., Sc.D., Professor of Transportation and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania, has, with the assistance of three of his associates, completed a two-volume work upon the "History of the Domestic and Foreign Commerce of the United States,"—a work undertaken ten years ago for the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Among his recent papers are "Commercial and Trade Aspects of the Panama Canal," for the International Engineering Congress which met in San Francisco, September 20-25, 1915, and "The War and International Commerce and Finance," for the book published by Appleton on "Problems of Readjustments After the War."

As editor of Appleton's Railway Series, he edited a volume upon "Regulation of Public Utilities and Railroads in Wisconsin," and is now engaged on a volume, entitled "The Panama Canal and Commerce," to be published by the Appleton's.

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During the past year President Robert L. Kelly, of Earlham College, Indiana, has seen the consummation of the plan he has been championing for some time to allow high school students in the public schools of Indiana to receive credit for work done in the English Bible. The plan is now approved by the Indiana State Board of Education, and numerous cities and towns are putting it into operation.

President Kelly led in the organization of an Association of American Colleges. A three days' session was held in Chicago in January, 1915, and some 160 of the colleges and independent universities of the country were represented by their Presidents and Deans. A permanent organization was effected, and President Kelly was made its first President. The Campaign Committee of the Council of Church Boards of



Education, of which he is a member, is planning to launch a nation-wide campaign in behalf of denominational education, the campaign to begin about January 1, 1916, and to continue for three years. In his paper read at Buffalo, in March, 1915, at the general meeting of the Religious Education Association, he dwelt on the "Responsibility of the Church for the Religious Education of the American Child," and the method of putting that work into effect.

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Early in May, 1915, Professor Vernon L. Kellogg asked leave of absence from Stanford University, in order to aid the Commission for Relief in Belgium. He was put in charge of all the work in Northern France, his district extending from Lille to Longwy. He had several separate provinces under him, with Americans in charge of each, and according to the arrangements of the Commission, each of the Commission's delegates was placed in charge of a German officer.

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Professor William Kirk, in charge of the Department of Economics and Sociology at the University of Rochester, and General Secretary of United Charities of Rochester, spent part of the summer of 1915 studying the life and legends of the Alaska Indians. He visited, among other places, Ketchikan, Wrangell, Petersburg, Killisnoo, Sitka, Juneau, Douglas, and Haines.

Within the year Professor Charles Knapp, of Columbia University, has written in the *American Journal of Philology* "Notes on Plautus and Terence," "Studies in the Syntax of Early Latin," "The Roman Theater (23 illustrations) in Art and Archaeology," "A Discussion of Horace," "Sermones in Transactions of the American Philological Association," "Liberal Studies in Ancient Rome" (soon to appear in *The Educational Review*).

Mr. Knapp, who is Professor of Classical Philology at Columbia, has since April, 1907, been Secretary-Treasurer of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, and Managing Editor, since October, 1907, of *The Classical Weekly*, a periodical owned and published by that Association. He is a member of the Executive Committee of the American Philological Association, and contributes annually the article on "Philology, Classical," to the *New International Year Book*, and the article

"Latin Literature" to *The American Year Book*. He is in charge of the Department of Classical Philology in *The New International Encyclopedia*.

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That which Parke R. Kolbe, Ph.D., regards as the most important work being done by the Municipal University of Akron, Ohio, lies in its co-operation with the interests of the municipality. Buchtel College, for instance, of which Dr. Kolbe is President, "has put its students to practical work in the city's activities as: visitors for the Charity Organization; deputy sanitary inspectors for the Board of Health; assistants in the Bureau of City Tests; directors of clubs for school children; assistants in the Bureau of Municipal Research."

Buchtel College is one of the three departments into which the University of Akron is divided—the others being the College of Engineering and the Curtis School of Home Economics.

Six texts of the Walter-Krause German Series, edited according to the ideals of the Reform or Direct Method, have appeared from the press of Charles Scribner's. There are "five cardinal points in the reform of modern language teaching: insistence upon good pronunciation; oral work; inductive teaching of grammar; real reading, and so-called realien."

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Professor Frederick Morgan Padelford, Department of English, University of Washington, Seattle, is serving as a member of the Committee of Academic Freedom of the American Association of University Professors. He has recently published a sympathetic Biography of the late Reverend George Dana Boardman Pepper, for many years President of Colby University.

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At the meeting of the Land Grant College Engineering Association, held at the University of California, Berkeley, California, last August, Professor A. A. Titsworth represented Rutgers College as the Dean of Engineering. In October; Professor Titsworth was appointed one of a committee to act "as an Advisory Commission to the Commissioners of the City of New Brunswick, N. J., in the matter of special water supply, including the subject of reserved pumping equipment, additional storage, filtration and increased pressure."

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Mary Vance Young, Professor of Romance Languages, Mount Holyoke College, has for the past year, in addition to the ordinary work of her profession, been in charge of the War Relief Committee of the College. Miss Young is a Director of the Modern Language Association of New England, and Vice-President of the Modern Language Association of America—the first woman to hold that office.

## 6. PUBLIC MEASURES.

In discussing what he believes should be the initial steps taken to save for the City of New York those valuable areas of future park space that may be lost at any moment unless they are now secured, the Honorable Cabot Ward says:

First, Central Park should be physically connected with Riverside and other park areas. Such connections would make it possible to use more intensively the existing park and recreation facilities. There is also a chain of small parks leading north from 110th Street, which could readily be used as a nucleus to connect Central Park with Highbridge and Washington Bridge parks.

Second, the wonderful western bank of the Harlem should be improved. Here we have a speedway now restricted to the limited number of citizens who indulge in light wagon and trotting contests. While giving full weight to the importance of this sport, it should not now obstruct a real public improvement for the many as against the few. I have, therefore, drafted a bill for the legislature with provisions taking off the restrictions on the speedway so that it can be used like other park areas. With this accomplished, there will be one great western slope parkway along the river; for adjoining the Speedway is Highbridge Park undeveloped, Washington Park only partly developed, and Fort George Park. This latter, though privately owned, is still available for acquisition by the city; for it consists now chiefly of an amusement park whose only encumbrances are a number of small buildings and shanties. At this point, therefore, with only a small outlay the city can acquire immediately a great new tract for intensive use. Such



a park will be an immense asset to the city, but the longer it remains in its present condition, the greater is the waste, not to speak of the destruction in this undeveloped territory. These parks have never been developed and co-ordinated. Trees are being cut down, and soil is being washed away.

Third, we should take in at once the territory between Lafayette Boulevard and the river below Washington Park, that wild wooded point reaching out to the Hudson with its splendid river view north and south. Not one citizen in a thousand realizes that the city owns none of the land between Lafayette Boulevard, (which is a continuation of Riverside Drive) and the Hudson River. Any day, buildings may be put up by private citizens on that long stretch, delaying for years all possibility of any river front park above 157th Street where the greatest natural beauty exists. If that is done we shall some day later have to buy this improved private property at huge expense and tear down all the buildings. Now is the time to act.

Fourth, we should take in similarly the strip north of Fort Washington Park for protection purposes, if for no other reason. Inwood Hill is one of the most beautiful places in the whole city, a wooded, rocky height where you look out across Spuyten Duyvil and over the Harlem and the Hudson. That is a strategic point that we must not lose; yet during this last year it has been threatened by building operations.

The city has already acquired a park strip near Inwood Hill (Isham Park) and I have secured from the generous donors about seventeen more acres of land. This park will run down to the canal not far from Inwood Hill, and if we can only secure the latter this park strip can easily be made continuous. Here in the canal we could perhaps have on a small scale the canoeing facilities which have made such wonderful recreation for Detroit and other cities of this country.

Fifth, there is no doubt that in the future Blackwell's Island, which is clearly no longer a suitable place for corrections and charities, will be transformed into a park, duplicating that wonderful Belle Isle of Detroit, the admiration of all recreation experts. That will undoubtedly come in time. Just at present the city is financially restricted, and I would not advocate a plan for immediate transformation of Black-

well's Island. But these things should all be put on a definite plan. All the authorities should agree that this is what the city is going to do, so that millions may not be spent in future in removing structures and buying at increased values.

Sixth, we should connect the Speedway with the Dyckman Street terminus of Lafayette Boulevard. There is an easy possibility of making a boulevard from Washington Bridge across to connect with the Hudson Riverside Park, thus joining Manhattan to the Bronx by an additional road.

Seventh, a plan has been worked out by which the Brooklyn park system could be better connected and co-ordinated by a series of boulevards, and a great driveway has been laid out to skirt the territory along the shore of Jamaica Bay. Very few of our citizens realize that there is rapidly approaching completion a twin brother of Riverside Park which runs along the eastern side of the Upper Bay and Narrows. This will form a most important connecting link in the park system of Brooklyn.

Eighth, plans should be promptly made to secure adequate park facilities for the Borough of Richmond. What shall we say of a city with a congestion problem like ours, a city which has spent millions in retrieving past lack of foresight in purchasing land for recreation purposes, and which even now is not awake to the need of seizing the opportunity in the Borough of Richmond before it is too late! On Staten Island the park space is barely adequate for present needs, and there is no provision whatever for the future growth of the borough. There are large tracts of land which in their natural beauty are remarkably adapted to park use. These tracts are as yet unimproved, and can be secured by the city at comparatively low cost. The civic bodies in Richmond are joining with me to see if we cannot all agree upon a plan, and then get the Board of Estimate to adopt it. Staten Island is bound in the near future to be intensively built up. The natural topography makes it easy to foresee what would be ideal park land. If this plan can be worked out we may now secure that land at low cost for the city of the future.

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## PERSONAL ITEMS.

Mrs. Harriet Chalmers Adams, F.R.G.S., has travelled 40,000 miles through South America, reaching the southernmost settlement of the world in Tierra del Fuego; and the Andean summit of Mount Misti, 19,200 feet above the sea. In visiting the ancient Americ Indian tribes, she has lived in permanent settlements from North America to Bolivia; spent a year travelling from Siberia to Sumatra, on the fringe of Asia, making a comparative study of ancient Indo-Chinese peoples in relation to earliest Americ peoples. In the Philippine Islands she went through the Archipelago from the head-hunting country of Northern Luzon to the islands of the Sulu group off the Bornean coast, crossing Mindanao in the saddle. She has given great attention to Spain and her colonies, and "visited every land on earth that is or ever has been Spain's."

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Miss Fannie Fern Andrews was among the thirty men and women who represented twelve different countries to perfect a plan for the permanent peace of the world at the International Confidential Meeting at The Hague.

"The idea of a League of Peace," as she says, "is the most feasible and practical plan yet advanced to secure the peace of the world. Providing for a judicial tribunal to settle justiceable disputes between nations, a council of conciliation to consider non-justiceable cases, and periodic conferences between the signatory powers to formulate and codify rules of international law, this league contemplates the building up of a judicial and legislative body capable of dealing with world relations. And in further providing that the signatory powers shall jointly use forthwith both their economic and military forces against any one of their number that goes to war before submitting its dispute to the judicial tribunal or to the council of conciliation, the League guarantees a sanction for its judicial decisions and paves the way for gradual disarmament among the nations. This League contemplates a government existing for the welfare of the people."

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Professor William Frederick Badé, author of "The Old Testament in the Light of To-day," has recently undertaken the task of literary executor and biographer of the late John Muir. Of this distinguished naturalist and inspiring chronicler, Professor Badé says: "No American citizen did more for the establishment of national parks, and the conservation of the great forests of the west. In the concluding chapter of this book, "Our National Parks," his sentences are aflame with the passion of a Hebrew prophet who sees the vision of the coming age and its needs. \* \* \* John Muir the seer, the writer, the father and guardian of Yosemite, awaits the appraisal of a later and greater day."

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The Honorable John Barrett is Director-General of the Pan-American Union—the international organization maintained by the twenty-one American Republics for the development of good understanding, friendly intercourse, and commerce and peace among them. The Union is controlled by a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the diplomatic representatives in Washington of the other Republics, and is administered by a Director-General and Assistant Director, chosen by this Board, and assisted by a staff of international experts, statisticians, editors, compilers, translators and librarians.

In addition to his duties as Director, he is also Secretary-General of the Pan-American Scientific Congress. He was the founder of the Pan-American Society of the United States; is an Honorary Member of the Asiatic Society of New York, and has been decorated by both the Chinese and Venezuelan Governments for services rendered in Asia and South America.

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The irrigation works built by the Honorable George E. Barstow around the town founded by him in Ward County, Texas, and which bears his name, now supply water for 30,000 acres of land. This activity drew him into the official service of various national and international organizations, and he was elected President of the International Irrigation Congress and the National Drainage Association. Among the subjects

on which he has lectured of late are: "Irrigation by Private Enterprise"; "Influence of Irrigation on the Social Order"; "Land Settlers and Co-operative Societies."

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The Crosby Brown Collection of Musical Instruments in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, had its origin in a few choice pieces that some thirty years ago were purchased for the embellishment of a private music room. The charm of these beautiful Italian specimens opened up a fascinating field of research that appealed strongly to the donor, who, herself a music lover, was not slow to realize the value to musical students of a collection representing the instruments of all nations. With this end in view communications were sent out to missionary friends and to United States consuls in far distant lands, which resulted in bringing together a collection of primitive instruments; these were supplemented by a remarkable assemblage of every form of European folk instrument, which show the development of the modern instruments from their most primitive beginnings to finished orchestral types. The collection was presented to the Museum in 1889, when it numbered 276 examples. By constant additions it has now become one of the finest collections in the world, and five large galleries are necessary to display the 3,600 or more instruments it contains. It was always the intention of the donor to make the collection not a curiosity shop, but an educational institution. For some time past Mrs. John Crosby Brown has lost all practical use of her eyes. Notwithstanding that, in four years she has published two books: "Dedications" and "Joy in Gardens."

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The majority opinion of the United States District Court for the District of New Jersey, handed down June 3rd, 1915, that the United States Steel Corporation had not violated the Sherman Anti-Trust Law and denying the Government's pleas for a dissolution or injunction, was written by Circuit Judge Joseph Buffington. The case, which occupied the court's attention for about five months, and which required the examination of a vast amount of testimony, consisted largely in the determination of the business facts involved, the construction of the statute having been already settled by previous decisions

of the Supreme Court. The minority opinion of the Court subscribed to the final decision of the majority, differing only in the lines of reasoning along which the decision was reached. An appeal to the Supreme Court has been taken by the Government.

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Signor Enrico Caruso writes that he "had a very nice *winter* last summer in Buenos Ayres, singing all the time to very large audiences," and that he hopes "the Argentine people will wish me to have a very pleasant winter here in their summer time." His words regarding future plans are, "L'uomo propone e Dio disponè." Signor Caruso opened the New York opera season at the Metropolitan on November 15th, singing Samson in Samson et Dalila.

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Mrs. Catherine R. Chenoweth was the Founder of the "Daughters of Holland Dames," composed of the descendants of the early Dutch settlers in New York, and having for its purpose the preservation and collection of records and historical documents relating to the early Dutch period of New York City. Mrs. Chenoweth was a member of the American Peace Centenary Committee, 1914-1915.

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"Porto Rico," says Governor George R. Colton, "is abreast of the most progressive states of the Union and of the world in legislation for the encouragement and up-building of its commercial and industrial activities. Agriculture and horticulture have been fostered by laws providing for the prevention of the introduction of plant and animal diseases, the eradication of insects and the protection of birds and animals destructive thereof. Systematic and effective means of introducing Porto Rican coffee and other products into permanent and profitable markets have been adopted. Laws for the suitable regulation and control of public utilities and all corporations organized to transact business within the territory have been enacted. Equal opportunities for the people in transportation facilities and good service thereby have been provided. Correct legislation has been enacted protecting the workers of the island; sugar centrals have been required to provide medical attendance for their employees; the hours of



labor limited for women and children and dangerous occupations forbidden. An adequate system of weights and measures has been adopted, enabling small purchasers to get fuller value and better living for their money; and means have been provided whereby the municipal governments may procure through the Insular Treasury at a low rate of interest the necessary funds to install the public works required for the convenience and health of the people."

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Through the efforts of Reverend Edwin C. Dinwiddie to prohibit army canteens, \$3,500,000 was appropriated by Congress for buildings at army posts to be devoted to the recreation of enlisted men. He was Chairman of the U. S. official delegation, thirteenth Congress, at the Hague, held in 1911, also of the fourteenth Congress at Milan, Italy, in 1913; attended the tenth at Budapest, Hungary, 1905, and was on the program on "Status of Reform in U. S. A." at the eleventh Congress, held at Stockholm, Sweden, in 1907. He directed in 1909, the prohibition campaign before Congress which finally resulted in the adoption of important amendments relating to interstate shipments of intoxicating liquors.

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Rear Admiral Fiske regards as his most important work that which he was able to do while "Aid for Operations, of the Navy, (1913-1915) in bringing about the establishment of the office of "Chief of Naval Operations"; a position like that of "Chief of Staff" of the Army, on which the officers of the Navy had been working for many years.

In January, 1912, Rear Admiral Fiske took the U. S. S. Washington and North Carolina into Key West harbor; against the advice of experts, as each ship drew two feet, eight inches more than any ship that had ever entered before. Since then, large ships, both naval and merchant, have regularly used the harbor.

Since his retirement as member of the United States Senate from South Dakota, on March 3rd, 1913, the Honorable John Gamble has re-entered the practice of law. At the establishment of a Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa at Lawrence University he was elected an Alumni Member of that fraternity. The college has conferred upon him the degree of LL.D.

Armistead Churchill Gordon, LL.D., is now serving his fourth term as a member of the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia, and as Rector and presiding officer of the board. He was the originator of the movement which some years ago resulted in the creation of the office of President of the University, the administration of which had theretofore been in charge of a "Chairman of the Faculty."

In October Dr. Gordon delivered the address at the dedication of the monument to President Tyler, erected in Richmond, Virginia, by the Congress of the United States.

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Aside from his duties as editor of *The Independent*, Mr. Hamilton Holt is devoting his energies to delivering his lectures, "The Federation of the World," and "Commercialism and Journalism." The former deals with the history and philosophy of the peace movement; the latter with the dangers involved in control by a paper's financial interests of its editorial policy.

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Mr. Frederick E. Ives has lately invented a new process of color photography, to which the name "Hichrography" has been given, by means of which not only transparencies can be made, but colored prints, or "hicromes," as well. The invention has been placed on the market in commercial form.

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The special work done by Miss Elizabeth Jordan during the year, and which she regards as quite the most important undertaking she has yet accomplished, was the writing of the life story of Doctor Anna Howard Shaw, published in book form under the title of "The Story of a Pioneer." Dr. Shaw, while incapacitated with a broken ankle in March, 1913, told the story to Miss Jordan and her stenographer, and talked steadily five hours a day for two weeks. At the end of that time Miss Jordan had 180,000 words in notes, from which she wrote the story as it appears to-day.

Miss Jordan has also published the third of her "May Iverson" books—"May Iverson's Career"—which appeared serially in *Good Housekeeping* at the same time that Dr. Shaw's Life was appearing serially in the *Metropolitan Magazine*.

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During the past year Mr. Strickland L. Kneass has completed experiments and has been granted United States patents for three inventions having to do with increased safety in railroad operation.

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Mr. William C. Le Gendre is serving as chairman of the Committee for a State Police, an organization which is working to obtain for New York State an organization similar to the Pennsylvania State Constabulary.

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In the absence of the President, Mrs. Frederick Nathan, as first Vice-President, presided over the tenth annual meeting of the National Consumers' League, held on November 4th and 5th in Cleveland, and also gave an address at the public dinner held at the Hotel Hollanden on the evening of November 4th. Mrs. Nathan was also one of the guests of honor of the Chamber of Commerce at its luncheon on November 6th, and addressed the Women's Temple Association that afternoon on "The Social Conscience," and was given a reception later. At the twenty-fifth anniversary celebration of the New York Consumers' League, of which, since 1897 Mrs. Nathan has been President, the different associations affiliated with the League and those with which Mrs. Nathan has been associated, were all represented.

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The Joseph Rodman Drake Memorial Committee of the Bronx Society of Arts and Sciences, of which Mr. Victor Paltsits was chairman, unveiled two tablets last spring to the memory of the poet,—one at the grave in Drake Park at Hunt's Point, and the other in the south gorge of Bronx Park near the rapids. The Lorillard Mansion at the time was filled with a large collection of books by Drake, or relating to him, which was afterwards presented to the Bronx Society of Arts and Sciences.

On the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the transition from Dutch to English rule celebrated in New York on June 24th, 1915, Mr. Paltsits was a member of the Mayor's Committee, and for the official volume "The Seal and Flag," wrote the chapter which gives the history of that great transition period.

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Professor William E. Ritter, of the Scripps Institute for Biological Research of the University of California, has recently published a little book, entitled "War, Science and Civilization." One of the ideas he develops in this book is the extension of the Monroe Doctrine to the realm of philosophy, to the end that we evolve, in this country, a new culture, based on a true observation of nature, that shall be free of any inherent defects such as may be responsible for the present European war.

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Captain James A. Scrymser says in his "Personal Reminiscences" that to the heroism of Mrs. Francis C. Barlow, he owed his inspiration of the memorial building, now being erected in Washington, D. C., in memory of the heroic women of the Civil War, to be used as a permanent headquarters of the American Red Cross.

Mrs. Barlow whose "services to the Union can never be fully appreciated," died of camp fever just before the close of the war. General Barlow died in 1896. In his last interview with Captain Scrymser, he spoke of the heroism of his wife, and "prophesied that the time would come when the finest monument in this country would be built to the memory of the loyal women of the Civil War," to whom the country owed so immense a debt of gratitude.

Fifteen years later at a meeting of the New York Commandery of the Loyal Legion, Captain Scrymser launched his project, proposed that the sum of \$500,000 be raised to build such a monument, and personally guaranteed \$50,000 upon condition that \$300,000 be raised within a year.

In writing to Captain Scrymser on the subject, William H. Taft, then in the White House, asked what better monument could be built, since "it was on women's initiative that the great Sanitary Commission of our Civil War was inaugurated, and its success was largely due to their tireless efforts. The splendid work of this American organization was recognized by the Convention of Geneva in 1864, when the International Red Cross Treaty was enacted."

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Professor Wilbur H. Siebert has for sometime been collecting material in England, Canada, and the United States concerning the dispersion of the American Loyalists during and at the close of the Revolutionary War, and the settlements formed by them in the Canadian provinces, Great Britain, Jamaica, and the Bahama Islands. His various published articles on this subject will be collected into book form and illustrated with maps, portraits and views.

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Mr. Frank H. Simonds relinquished his editorial duties with the *New York Sun* early in the present year to assume the editorship of the *New York Tribune*. Mitchell Kennerly has recently published two books by Mr. Simonds, entitled "The Great War," one dealing with the period Mr. Simonds describes as the first phase, the other with what he denotes as the second. These books contain the editorials on the war which appeared in the *Sun* and *Tribune*, and which have commanded a universal attention.

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Under special instructions from the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, the Reverend Dr. Robert E. Speer, accompanied by a secretary, medical advisor and some officials, sailed for the Orient in April, 1915. The trip was undertaken in accordance with the policy adopted by the Board of having one of the secretaries visit some part of the mission field each year. Fourteen years have elapsed since the last secretarial visit to Siam and the Philippines. The special studies now to be made by Dr. Speer and his party are the general character of the work, the financial condition of the missions and all matters affecting real estate and property, and the medical side of the Board's operations in the lands visited. After leaving Siam Dr. Speer plans going to Corea, North China and Japan for conferences regarding some special problems in those fields.

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At the Panama Pacific Exposition, the Exhibit of National Religious Forces, organized by Mr. Guy B. St. John, was awarded four gold medals. This exhibition covered 10,000 square feet, and was commended for its arrangement of walls, openness of the display and terseness of the subject matter.

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Professor C. H. Van Tyne, who delivered the Harvard Foundation Lectures in the French Universities 1913-1914, visited eight universities: Caen, Rennes, Nancy, Lille, Grenoble, Lyons, Dijon, and Besançon, delivering three lectures in each place. In the French Archives he made a special study of the relations of France and America during the American Revolution.

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Help for the farmer—not only in the way of securing better health conditions for his family but along the line of making farm life more interesting and emotionally satisfying, is a subject that has been holding the attention of Mrs. A. Van Hoesen Wakeman. As a result of her experience both in farm journalism and in actual farm life in the Middle West, Mrs. Wakeman believes that the solution of the problem lies in rural community centers—buildings containing such features as sitting rooms for men and women, bath rooms, and a little auditorium. Here the farming population could come to read, hear lectures, and be amused. Mrs. Wakeman is confident that if a group of people would undertake to test this plan by establishing a little circuit of say three casinos in some rural section, its value would be fully demonstrated, and many such centers would be built in other places.

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Miss Louise Collier Willcox, author of "The Human Way," "A Manual of Spiritual Fortification" and "The Road to Joy," is now employed on the *New York Sunday Sun*.

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During the past year Professor Mary Schenck Woolman, D.S., President of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston, has been lecturing, advising and making special investigations concerning women and girls. Her aims have been "to gain information on the conditions of labor; the opportunities for training for vocations and the content of the curricula; the training of teachers for industrial subjects, and the economic influence women are having as spenders of money on the homes, the retail trade and the textile industries." In these interests she travelled for five months.

As Chairman of the Women's Committee of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education she has



served on the Survey Committee of the City of Richmond, Virginia, and is now making an industrial and educational survey of Minneapolis. As a member of the committee for furthering the interests of the Smith-Hughes bill for obtaining Federal Aid for Industrial Education she is working to make the opportunities for Vocational Education accessible to all states.

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James Carleton Young, Litt.D., is one of the three foreign members of the Société des Amis des Livres of Paris, of which Carmen Sylva is another. His unique library of autographed books,—stored in his Minneapolis residence, and in fireproof vaults of many European capitals,—has now grown to such proportions that not only are the services of a librarian required, but those of eight assistants as well. Mr. Young has always believed that the formation of a library of literary masterpieces would be the best tribute he could pay to the art of literature. His ideal library was to “embrace all the best literature of the world for all time, each volume being selected for its literary merit.” As such an undertaking could not be accomplished within the lifetime of any one individual, he substituted the plan of bringing together under one roof the best literature of his day, in the original editions when possible, each volume characteristically inscribed by the author, since only by means of an inscription does the volume become absolutely unique, always having attached to it something of the intimate personality of the writer.

After Zola's death, his library of 847 inscribed volumes, and over 100 of his autographed letters, many of them relating to his unfulfilled desire to enter the French Academy, came into the possession of Mr. Young.

















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